

The CLEARING HOUSE

A JOURNAL FOR MODERN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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No. 1

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. . . Junior High School Students Reflect on the Ideal Teacher . . . Reading
Skills of College Entrants . . . About Adolescent Boys and Their Attitudes

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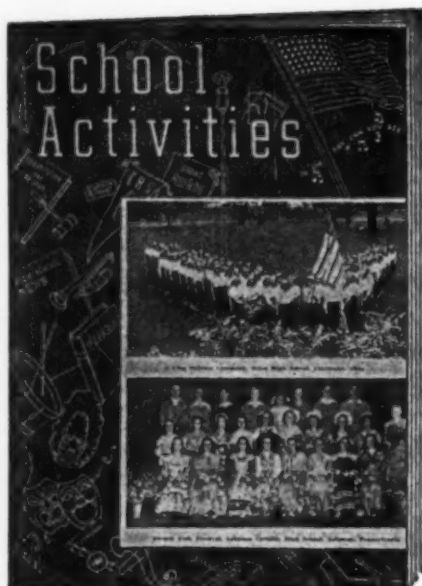
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THE MYTHS OF EDUCATION

By JOHN A. GREEN

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION has ruined the public schools. We have dropped the rigorous subjects that had mental discipline value and have permitted schools to become a circus of pleasing activities. The result of these actions has been that high-school graduates today don't know the three R's, and they are virtual illiterates in the cultural fields of the liberal arts.

These and other equally vituperative charges are among the educational myths which have been hurled at public education during the post-Sputnik reaction period. Some of these charges have been made by sincere men who generalized from a limited experience with one school child, one school, and one community. Some charges have been made by men who remembered the schools of their generation but were completely unaware of the actual aims, curriculums, and techniques of modern schools. Some of the charges have been true; more of them have been false. They have, however, focused attention on education and sharpened the need for an honest, critical evaluation of public education—elementary, secondary, and higher—but this review needs to be made with the benevolent view of improving rather than destroying. Strengths and weaknesses should be identified, but as the basis for improvement. Judgments about educational quality need to be made, but based on ample evidence from enough schools to insure their validity. Before any such attempts are made, the myths of education mentioned above need to be explored and exploded,

for they carry with them a bias that blinds the evaluator to the virtue of another viewpoint.

The first myth held by many people is the claim that the difficult subjects which discipline the mind have been dropped from high-school curriculums. This myth also implies the equally persistent myth that learning must be difficult and distasteful to be effective since learning which is pleasant and easy is bad. Psychological research during the last twenty-five years has disproved the myth that the mind can be strengthened by the discipline of difficult study. Such a mental factor as memory cannot be stretched like a muscle by the oft-repeated mental gymnastic of memorizing a difficult "cultural" passage. Those who doubt this can gather their own proof by the simple expedient of practicing memorization fifteen minutes a day for several months to determine whether they can improve their memory faculties. It might, however, be more rewarding and less time consuming to take one of the "piano playing in six easy lessons" courses. The most difficult of all memory tasks is memorizing nonsense syllables; thus a curriculum of nonsense syllables might best fit the requirements of those who press for rigorous mental discipline.

It need not follow that all which is difficult be thrown out of the curriculum, but other bases for judgment are more significant than difficulty. The ultimate usefulness of the learning, its contribution to further learning, its appropriateness to the age and

EDITOR'S NOTE

Obviously the author is not talking about classical mythology, but rather the kind of myth that is defined as "things existing only in imagination." Depending on the bias of the popular magazine one reads, it is possible to believe that our schools are in a parlous state or to believe that our schools are doing the best job they can with the resources that they have. There aren't many people in the middle ground who wish to observe what schools in their community are doing before they make up their minds. It is almost impossible not to take sides in the current controversies arising out of notions about public schools. This article is welcomed by The Clearing House because it brings reasoning to bear on some generalized charges made against the American educational system. The author is assistant professor in the College of Education, University of Idaho.

development of the child, these are more important than the difficulty; furthermore, when the learning is pleasant and purposeful, it may appear much less difficult to the child. Pleasant learning can be rigorous, intense, and important.

The second myth states that certain school subjects are important because the training in them transfers to other fields. For example, the study of Latin is important because it helps the pupil understand English grammar and because it helps him with word derivations. Transfer of training from one field to another, however, is exceedingly meager. The pupil who learns how to reason in geometry normally does not transfer this logical process to problems in politics or religion. Instead he continues to rationalize on the basis of his preconceived prejudices. When transfer does take place, it is inefficient, and it is effective only with bright pupils and with problems similar to those which were

studied. If we wish children to understand English grammar, common sense dictates that we will teach English grammar. If the objective is understanding word derivations, we need to teach a unit on word derivations. If the objective is logical reasoning when dealing with everyday problems, we need to set up such problems for children to solve. Latin, if it is taught, should be taught for its value as a language; and geometry should be taught as a basic step in the mathematics skills.

Myth number three states that high-school graduates today are incompetent. Two considerations are important here. First, about 80 per cent of all eligible youth are now attending high school as compared to a select 10 per cent two generations ago. Pupils today range in I.Q. from 80 to above 140, so that it is obvious that the slowest can hardly equal the minimum prowess of the brightest. Second, in spite of the broad range of pupils, the average performance of pupils today on standardized tests on which records have been kept is at least as good as, and in many instances better than, that of pupils two generations ago. One of the first achievement test batteries, the Stanford achievement test, was published in 1919 and is still popular today, so that numerous schools have kept records of performance on this test for many years. In fact, pupils in high school today will outperform their high-school-graduated parents on achievement test batteries in mathematics, science, social science, and English. If former high-school graduates were competent, those of today are more competent. This does not mean, however, that there is no room for improvement.

The fourth myth states that anybody who knows something can teach it; therefore teacher-training colleges today are offering too many methods courses and too few subject-matter courses. An examination of one's personal experiences may reveal the fallacy in this myth, for the best remem-

bered, most effective teacher may not have been the most scholarly or the most intelligent. Of course, every teacher needs certain subject-matter skills before he can teach, and it could be granted that the more intelligent tend to be the better teachers. But subject matter skills and intelligence are not enough. Prospective teachers need some actual "how to do it" courses from competent teachers with experience in public schools. In most teacher-training colleges, about twenty semester hours of education and psychology courses are required of students, with about three to nine of these hours in methods, while the rest of the 126 semester hours are in subject-matter fields. About sixty semester hours are required in the two or three major and minor subject fields in which the student will teach.

The fifth myth is that progressive education has ruined schools, and that John Dewey as Mr. Progressive Education has made virtual disciples of most American public school teachers, thus switching the educational objective of schools from indoctrination of the "cultural heritage" to life adjustment. John Dewey is probably the most cussed, discussed, and misunderstood educator in the world, but his influence has been world wide. He helped the Chinese set up their present school system, and the Russians consulted him in setting up their postrevolution school system. In spite of this influence, few people have read any of his books completely, and of those who read the books many did not understand what they read. John Dewey

was one of the leaders of progressive education, but progressive education is just as difficult to pin down as Dewey's philosophy. Few people understand progressivism and fewer profess to support it, yet it has become the scapegoat with all the ills, imaginary and actual, of education attributed to it. Let an irate parent become disgruntled with a teacher or a teacher angry with her principal, and likely as not the "old whipping boy," progressive education, is pulled from the air and hurled at the offending member. In a recent nationwide survey of teachers conducted by the National Education Association only 7 per cent of the more than 3,000 teachers who responded said that they were progressive.

On the other hand, certain "progressive ideas" have become part of the whole cloth of education. One of these ideas is the concern with the individual child and an educational program to meet his needs. Most teachers give lip service to this idea, but few schools actually implement it. Progressive education has not ruined our schools, for schools are actually less "progressive" now than they were twenty years ago.

Faced with fantastic expansion, education, now more than ever before, needs support and critical appraisal, but critical appraisal unhindered by the smoked glasses of mythical bias. Acquaintance with education is the best antidote for such ignorance. Those who would criticize should get to know our schools before they make judgments.

If secondary education is to avoid becoming a formless mass separating elementary from higher education, high schools across the land must join in defining their unique functions. These functions must be defined out of context but in relation to the other levels of education. We visualize a continuous, sequential system of American education, each level performing a function, not because the rest of the system depends on that function, but because the function is unique in the system.—JOHN I. GOODLAD in the *School Review*.

Teaching Science by Television

By MAURICE U. AMES

TELEVISION IS BEING USED by many school systems in the United States for direct teaching, as well as for the enrichment of many subjects at grade levels ranging from the kindergarten through the college level. Of these subjects, elementary science, junior-high-school general science, high-school biology, and high-school and college physics are quite prominent in the schedules of broadcasts. Evidently many American school systems feel the need to use this new medium to enrich the teaching of science.

The teachers used for this TV instruction are selected from the regular staff and obviously are recognized as able and experienced instructors. A TV teacher is usually responsible for only one lesson a day or in many systems for only three lessons a week, devoting the rest of the school day to preparing the next day's lesson. The work of the studio teacher also involves writing teacher guides which include suggestions for follow-up work, evaluation instruments, and other supplementary material. The extra time available to these studio teachers enables them also to assemble and demonstrate special equipment and experiments, use many visual aids such as charts and *realia*, and arrange for community resource people to participate in the studio broadcasts. Arrangements are usually made to have these studio teachers meet with classroom teachers, science supervisors, and curriculum experts to plan lessons and follow-up activities. Schedules of the programs, with a brief description of the content of each telecast, are sent to all schools in the system periodically and well in advance of the broadcasts.

Teachers and principals are invited to make use of the television programs and to comment with respect to their effectiveness

in enriching the teaching. In many school systems classes taught with the help of television have been tested by standard tests and in other ways for achievement in comparison with similar groups taught in the conventional manner.

During the spring of 1958 I was privileged to visit ten American cities where television was being used in public education and I had an opportunity to observe studio teaching, classroom reception of telecasts, and reactions of pupils, teachers, supervisors, and parents to television instruction. I was particularly interested in

EDITOR'S NOTE

There is a story of two freshmen, on their way to high school, discussing whether the plane they observed was an FJ-101 or an FJ-101B. The difference of opinion was not resolved, but it was terminated when the boys approached the school steps and walked into their first-period class in general science, which they found rather boring because the lesson dealt with simple concepts which somehow seemed out of tune with their science interests. What has this got to do with TV and TV instruction? Well, there is a point in this article which makes sensible comment on the possibility of having outstanding teachers stimulate student learning via TV. The author is assistant superintendent of schools and formerly supervisor of science and a junior high school principal, all in New York City. With a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education, he recently visited ten cities in the United States where educational television projects were in operation. This article indicates some implications for science instruction by TV, and it details some advantages and disadvantages of TV teaching.

TV instruction in the field of science at all levels.

Some of the advantages, as I saw them, of teaching by means of television are herewith listed:

(1) The lessons and demonstrations are more carefully planned and prepared and are more interestingly presented than our usual classroom lessons. Since television teachers are carefully selected from among the best in a school system and are given a great deal of time in which to plan, prepare, and implement lessons, it is to be expected that these will be of a high grade.

(2) Television makes it possible to spread the contributions of the outstanding teachers of a school system to all students and to the public. Where there are shortages of personnel, such as is now true of science teachers, it is thus possible to alleviate the situation somewhat by means of television.

(3) Television makes possible the use of a wide and rich variety of visual aids, demonstration equipment, *realia*, and resource people which are beyond the reach of a single classroom teacher. In one of the televised science lessons on electricity which I saw, the studio teacher called in a representative of the local telephone company to demonstrate the new type of solar battery currently in use in our Vanguard satellite. Obviously no film or ordinary classroom teacher can consistently get such enrichment to many classes.

(4) Because many more classrooms can be served simultaneously with a saving of films, projectors, shades, and special rooms, it is often economical to present films and film clips via the television receiver. Thus, Harvey E. White's high-school physics course on film is being telecast on a regularly scheduled basis in many school systems.

(5) The television camera can give every viewer a front-row seat for a science demonstration or experiment regardless of where he is seated. The camera and the television receiver are thus used as magnifying devices. For example, a studio teacher whom I saw

showed a model of the human eye with removable parts more effectively than could be done in comparable time in an ordinary classroom situation.

(6) Television reception of lessons and science demonstrations seems to promote close concentration, good attention, and self-discipline by students. They seem to assume more responsibility for learning than in the regular classroom. Evidently they soon learn that the studio teacher does not repeat statements or review the material as much as does the classroom teacher and that too much is missed if they do not concentrate.

(7) School officials agree unanimously that television instruction is helpful as a teacher-training device. Inexperienced teachers or out-of-license teachers learn many tricks of the trade and teaching techniques as they listen and watch with their classes. Also, the experienced studio teacher helps to plan follow-up activities and tests for all viewing classes.

(8) Courses of study can be developed and implemented with greater uniformity and comprehensiveness because of the common experience of a television series of lessons. Thus if a science teacher in the classroom tends to stress a subject area in which he has special competence and neglects other areas, the pupils benefit considerably when there is comprehensive television enrichment.

(9) Test results seem to indicate that students taught by television can achieve as well in the factual information and skills usually tested as do students in regular classes. Of course, this does not include techniques, attitudes, and certain intangible benefits that accrue with individual handling of equipment and materials in science laboratory work.

(10) Many teachers and principals who have the responsibility of teaching slow learners report that such pupils can acquire through television some of the facts and attitudes which they cannot learn through

reading and which they are not interested in acquiring through other avenues.

(11) Kinescopes, or tape recordings of telecasts, make it possible to preserve or use again some special demonstrations involving fragile or expensive materials, some outstanding lessons, or some special contribution by a visiting scientist.

(12) Television can be used successfully for summer-school make-up work, for remedial work, for home study, for advanced work, and for the benefit of the many who cannot come to a school building. It is obviously useful in teaching pupils who are homebound or in hospitals.

(13) When carefully planned and implemented, television instruction is welcomed by teachers as well as by supervisors, parents, and pupils.

This new teaching medium should not be regarded as a panacea. It has a number of inadequacies and difficulties. No supplementary aid, even one as effective as this audio visual aid, can be a complete substitute for a good teacher. There is bound to be justified criticism of its effectiveness if and when television is used to do the entire job of teaching a particular subject. From my observations I found the following inadequacies. Some of these shortcomings could probably be corrected in time with follow-up instruction that is carefully planned and integrated with the telecast programs. We should also keep in mind that this is a comparatively new technique and that it will take time and sufficient practice to perfect this TV medium as a good teaching tool.

(1) There seems to be less stress on individualization of instruction. The studio teachers generally aim their telecasts at the normal or average pupil. The needs of the gifted pupils, as well as those of slow learners, tend to be submerged. This is true, so far, in the viewing as well as in the follow-up of a television lesson. There also seems to be a diminution of individual guidance in such an appeal to a mass group.

(2) There seems to be less stress on socialization of instruction. Rather than the helpful co-operative approach of pupils and teachers in the selection and solution of problems, the lessons and activities in educational television are obviously centered around the studio teacher. Hence valuable group discussion is lessened.

(3) There is obvious reduced communication between the studio teacher and his pupils. The television teacher does not get the immediate reactions of his viewing audience, and pupils cannot ask questions or make comments while the television lesson is in progress. This often hurts the timing of the lesson and reduces valuable pupil participation in the learning process.

(4) In a few school systems classroom teachers are called upon to do preparatory teaching and follow-up teaching with large groups of pupils ranging from 80 to 300 who are scheduled to view a telecast. This kind of mass teaching is usually ineffectual and is generally harmful to the idea of television instruction. From my observations, television teaching can be effective with large groups of pupils providing there are sufficient receivers and good physical conditions in the room. However, I am convinced that the preparatory and follow-up instruction should be done in the classroom with the usual small classroom group.

In my opinion, on the basis of a great deal of observation of and current participation in television instruction, with science instruction involving five periods a week there should be no more than two thirty-minute telecasts a week with a follow-up of three classroom sessions. It is also important that preparatory and follow-up work include laboratory experiences by pupils with direct rather than vicarious experiences. At the elementary level I would limit the science telecast to twenty minutes rather than have a thirty-minute session. At the junior-high, senior-high, and college levels, the thirty-minute attention span can be maintained.

Of course there are some extracurricular TV science programs on commercial stations which science teachers can occasionally recommend to their classes. These new school-system TV projects around the coun-

try have many profitable possibilities for the enrichment of direct, in-school science teaching. These possibilities, I am sure, will be explored by science teachers who are always ready, willing, and able to experiment.



Quality Teaching

Quality teaching must include several understandings on the part of the teacher. First, students must be taught to think for themselves. The primary principle to keep in mind is that the teacher should not do the thinking for them. Until the student actually wants to learn there is not much that can be taught him.

A person does not think for himself unless he feels that he is free to do so, is given a feeling of self-confidence in thinking and learning, and is made to feel that other people really care for what he says and thinks. The good teacher, therefore, is not sarcastic about student ignorance and does not make fun of students when they display the natural lack of knowledge of the young mind. The forthrightness to admit not knowing a fact is the first thing necessary in learning to know the fact itself. Nor does the good teacher act toward the student in intellectually overbearing ways, but he inspires confidence and trust on the part of the students.

Second, students must be helped and encouraged to develop creative minds. In a diverse nation there must be allowance for diversity and provision for a change in culture. Individual differences must be encouraged as long as they do not interfere with the development of others.

There is a great need for research and expansion in the scientific areas. We are moving into a new phase of man's struggle to control his environment. The modern world is placing upon our shoulders heavy civic and moral responsibilities which demand that the social sciences not be neglected. Indeed, our very existence may depend upon the creative imaginations of the students who are now in our schools.

Third, students must be taught to think critically. In a free society the people must make decisions for themselves. It is important that these be wise decisions so that the social structure will be improved in such a way as to enhance the position

of the individual member. Though there is need for a certain pattern of conformity as it is concerned with group behavior, the pattern must be determined by the critical thinking of all who are affected by it.

Critical thinking is not something that can be done periodically. It should play a part when we read a newspaper, see a television program, listen to a radio program, hear a speech, and should influence every decision we make.

There is danger that in our complex social structure there will be a tendency toward regimentation. Through critical thinking and proper action based upon it, we can protect the basis for a free society—the freedom of the individual.

Quality education should be the responsibility of

- The school board because the community, in electing its members, has indicated a trust that the best educational program within the means of the school district will be provided.
- The community for as a component part of a free society upon which our educational philosophy is based it is essential to its integrity.
- The administration which furnishes the educational leadership, and is accountable for formulating and interpreting the goals and philosophy of the schools which should culminate in quality teaching.
- The classroom teacher whose goal should be the pursuit of excellence in every phase of the educational program.
- The higher education institutions with teacher education departments. From these colleges and universities come the young men and women who can produce quality teaching. It is the responsibility of the institutions to give them the ingredients and the recipe for this, the basic objective of our profession.—GEORGE W. HOFFMAN in *Pennsylvania School Journal*.

THE ETHOS OF RESEARCH

By LAURENCE B. JOHNSON

OVER THE SHOULDER of every research director peers another research director, or a whole bevy of them. On this fact batten a great army of writers, publicists, and "interpreters." It is the main reason why the gap between research and the consuming public is so wide.

That the gap is wide almost everyone in education will admit. Educational leaders moan that it takes fifty years for a new development in educational theory to reach classroom practice. Study piles on study while the few usable conclusions are buried on page 171 of the doctoral dissertation or research report.

A recent conference of editors and research directors on how to present research findings in more usable form produced merely an agreement to disagree. The editors still insisted that their readers wanted only the significant findings. The researchers continued to stress the beauty of the facts behind the conclusions and the need of presenting enough evidence so that other researchers could repeat the experiment or at least agree on the procedures.

There is no easy solution to the problem. But it might help if both sides understood

it more clearly—if each were not trying so hard to persuade the other to accept a single point of view as the only right one.

Consider Sad Sam Jones, a typical research director, with a true researcher's love of facts for their own sake. Sad Sam is faced—let us say—with the problem of whether it is better to put on the left shoe before the right, or vice versa.

First Sam has to decide on an approach. Shall he just ask a lot of people which they prefer? Shall he compare the results obtained by left shoers against those obtained by right shoers? Shall he experiment with both procedures with people who already have shoe habits? Or shall he start with children who have no shoe habits and train one left-shoe group and one right-shoe and see what happens?

There are obvious drawbacks to each approach. The opinion study merely finds out opinions, not facts. Measuring the results of present habits ignores the factors which caused them. Trying to change existing habits may tell him nothing about shoes, but a great deal about the problem of retraining. Starting with children will give no data for years to come, and if his study is to be thoroughly scientific, perhaps he should use all or several approaches.

Whichever one he uses, he faces a question of numbers. How many opinions, how many shoe users, how many habit changers, how many children would be needed to justify a conclusion? Whom do these numbers represent? If he gets opinions only in New York City, his findings are valid only for New Yorkers, not for midwesterners who may wear a different type of shoe, and certainly not for Indians or South Sea Islanders. If he uses only college students in one of his other experiments, is their presumed higher intelligence a significant fac-

EDITOR'S NOTE

We wish to make clear that the author, who is assistant executive secretary of the New Jersey Education Association in Trenton, submitted this manuscript without a title. Its content so impressed us—because we agree with it—that we tried out many titles, such as "Ingredients of Research," etc., but finally came up with "ethos" because, as you well know, it means "characteristics." We think this article deserves your reading regardless of whether or not you perform or consume research.

tor? If he tries retraining, how important is manual dexterity or left-handedness? If he compares groups, are they really comparable in all factors which might prove significant, such as sex or age? If his experiment is necessarily confined to one group, how can he discover whether his findings are equally true for a broader group?

And, finally, before he can even get started, he has to decide what "better" means, as applied to his particular problem. Does it mean faster, easier, more comfortable, more economical, or any one of a dozen other possibilities? Until he has defined it carefully, he is not even sure what he is trying to find out.

Well, let's assume that Sad Sam has answered all these questions. He has conducted his experiments and is faced with a mass of raw results. Before he can draw any conclusions, he has to process them. Not just a simple matter of counting, but of counting within counting, examining them carefully for any peculiarities which might appear, and using the numerous statistical gimmicks which are his stock in trade. Is the average, the median, or the mode the most satisfactory measure? To know, he must compute all three and compare them. Are there any suspicious correlations? How can he measure and allow for any errors?

When he has done all this, it is most unlikely that the results will be all black or all white. If the answer were so crystal clear, there would probably have been no need for research in the first place. More than likely, Sam will find that 65 per cent of the people prefer to put their left shoe on before their right, but that there is no very clear advantage in either method. He may also show—as a sort of by-product to his dozens of tables—that there is a close relationship between left-handedness and which shoe you put on first. And he may even come up with the suggestion—not at all proved—that you can tell whether a person is normally left- or right-handed by watching his shoe preferences.

Now along comes our writer, Happy Harry. Harry is more or less oblivious of Sad Sam's throes in reaching the conclusions. Harry merely wants to know what his readers—whether teachers or the general public—can get out of the conclusions. And Harry knows his readers care even less than he does about Sam's struggles; they want to know only what touches or affects them personally or what can in some way rouse their imagination, their sympathy, or their anger.

Presently there appears a snappy little paragraph headed, "Don't worry! Put on which ever shoe you like, but you probably like the left one." He will quote Sad Sam as his authority and occasionally, as a special favor, may even sign Sam's name to the story.

Let's assume that Harry is a good writer and that he gets his facts straight. Even so, Sam is deeply wounded and probably determines never to have anything to do with a writer again. Partly of course because Harry's paragraph seems like such a tiny outcome for days and weeks and often months of conscientious work. But even more because Sam cannot escape from those other researchers peering over his shoulder. He knows what they are muttering to each other, because he has said the same things himself. The lines go like this:

"And he calls *that* research?"

"What methods did he use?"

"What cross-checks are there?"

"How could anyone repeat his tests from that little account?"

But Harry—and Harry's readers—don't give a hoot. Harry went to Sam in the first place because Sam's title or position or reputation led Harry to think his research was honest, or at least interesting. Harry and his readers took that on faith—and will continue to do so—until some equally reputable researcher concludes, after an equally detailed study, that 75 per cent of the left-shoe firsters develop a perceptible twitch in their little fingers. When that is duly re-

ported, a few thousand impressionable readers will switch their shoe habits. Most will continue to do exactly what they have always done, surreptitiously watching for a twitch now and then, and deciding that they are either lucky or especially strong-minded when they fail to find it.

Meanwhile, of course, the research world will be in its own kind of wild uproar. Sam's friends will come to his defense; his enemies will line up with the twitch school. Learned papers will be read in stuffy rooms where all but the speaker—and the chairman, if conscientious—will be sleeping

peacefully. Eventually some young assistant professor will achieve notoriety by proving that some twitch is universal among right-handed people, even those who have never worn shoes. This, too, Happy Harry will report and his readers will graciously grant it twenty-eight seconds of their valued attention. Our assistant professor will of course be offered a position as research director, and the combined work of Sam and his successors may result, half a century hence, in a half-hour in each kindergarten in America devoted to teaching which shoe to put on first.



Streamlining School Administration

Today, school management has become a virtual monster in lopping off most of the supervisor's day at school. A recent study listed over 450 items with which supervisors are concerned in performing their day's duties—and well over 300 relate to school management! It is incumbent upon the administrator to find short cuts and better ways of introducing and extending routine practices.

When the introduction and extension of such matters can be viewed cooperatively, then the supervisor has indeed taken *two* forward steps. First, the probability of success will be greater and, second, it is an excellent means of stimulating teacher growth. The following plan has been found effective in achieving these goals. It is concerned with the preparation of a school-wide handbook. Such an endeavor is particularly of value when there are so many new teachers, as in the present junior high school organization.

This step-by-step approach might be used:

Form a steering committee of volunteers consisting of a chairman, and representatives from the different grades (as many as seem needed in accordance with school size) to

set up a Table of Contents of items to be amplified in the handbook.

assign each teacher a topic or topics to develop. Make these assignments in terms of teachers' experience and competence.

set a due date for the completion of the different topics.

Set aside time for the steering committee to do its work and to discuss the suitability of the submitted topics.

Mimeograph the accepted reports for compilation in book form.

Parent help can be solicited in the typing and collation.

Use the mimeographed handbook experimentally for a year.

Solicit comments and suggestions for modification at the end of the experimental period.

The original committee should then revise the book, and should serve as a standing committee for periodic revisions as needed.

The handbook can be as comprehensive or as skeletal as needs dictate. It would be impossible to list all of the topics which might be included in a given handbook. It should contain a title page, an index, and perhaps, the principal's preface.—JULIET SAUNDERS in *Intercom*.

LANGUAGE ARTS

EDITOR'S NOTE

Reading is initially a skill. But at a later stage it is also an art and, in the matter of testing, a science. To textbook writers, reading is a complex process requiring intensive analysis of technique, vocabulary, content, format, and motivation. (The Clearing House is fortunate in having on its editorial board Arno Jewett, one of our country's foremost authorities on reading and language arts. We turn to Dr. Jewett frequently for advice on manuscripts.)

We have said what reading is. Now we ask at what levels ought we "study" reading? At all levels of course—elementary, junior and senior high school, college and university—if by "study" we mean practice toward proficiency as well as ability toward better techniques for improving speed, comprehension, and skimming.

Here are three articles on reading at three different levels of education. The authors are, respectively, Benjamin Brickman, Department of Education, Brooklyn College, New York; John R. Anderson, Guidance and Placement Office, Virginia Polytechnic Institute (V.P.I.), Blacksburg, Virginia; Allen H. Fishken, Howard Beach, Long Island.

Functional Grammar in Junior High

By BENJAMIN BRICKMAN

PICTURE FOUR JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS with different attitudes toward grammar. A grasps it thoroughly and finds it helpful in communicating. He also appreciates its cultural significance, for it required a deep analysis of written and spoken language to evolve terminology, classification, and principles. As a logic of language, grammar is a creative, cultural achievement. He speaks of the "beauty" of grammar.

B is like A in all respects except that the cultural aspects are beyond him. A's "beauty of grammar" leaves him cold. C has the ability to grasp it, but he is wholly unimpressed by the benefits ascribed to it, and so has no use for it. D hates it because he doesn't understand it.

Two assumptions may safely be made: In average to better-than-average classes, the bulk of the students are represented by C and D. Also, most teachers combine formal

grammar with functional grammar, in varying degrees of proportion. The formal aspect manifests itself in the presentation of definitions and in such practices as underlining, filling in, or otherwise identifying certain items. To give the grammar a functional character, teachers usually link the students' compositions with principles, so that they may have a rational basis for avoiding certain errors.

Many teachers maintain forthrightly that their task is arduous and discouraging, and some are ready to throw their hands up in despair. "I can't reach the students. Maybe the whole business ought to be pushed ahead to high school or even to college."

Granted that the task is at best a difficult one, it seems that a large part of the difficulty lies in the way of teaching the subject, which usually takes on the pattern of formal presentation, formal practice, and functional application. If, however, the first step

were changed to *functional presentation*, two advantages would be gained: First, the principles would be grasped by many students. Second—and what is more important—the whole relation between grammar and communication would be appreciated by the student more fully; indeed, this appreciation is almost lacking in the pattern usually followed.

The following paragraphs will illustrate functional presentation. Suppose the teacher wishes to present the concept of adjective. She places on the blackboard these two paragraphs:

A	B
The man walked along the road. Soon he came to a house surrounded by trees. In front of the house was a gate.	The old man walked along the muddy road. Soon he came to a red house surrounded by tall trees. In front of the house was a rusty gate.

In an introductory comment the teacher tells the class to imagine two observers watching the man and writing down what they see. One observer writes paragraph *A* and the other paragraph *B*. By judicious questioning she elicits from the class that they like *B* better because it tells them more about the same incident, and the "more" consists of certain words. As these are given by the students, she underlines "old," "muddy," "red," "tall," and "rusty." She adds a timely comment that anything written or spoken is to be preferred if it tells more about people or things.

The next phase would be a slow step toward the formal. Two columns are written on the board, viz.:

old	man
muddy	road
red	house
tall	trees
rusty	gate

By further questioning she obtains from the class the idea that "old" tells something about the man, "muddy" about the road, and so on, and then that "old" *describes* man, "muddy" *describes* road, and so on. "We call these describing words, 'adjectives,'" stresses the teacher, and follows with

a formal definition: "An adjective is a word used to *describe* a noun." In a later lesson, the word "modify" may be substituted for "describe," and certain exercises of identification may be done. In connection with composition work that will be done thereafter, the use of adjectives and their value may be stressed both before and after the writing.

A similar procedure may be followed for the adverb, with the aid of such paragraphs as these:

A	B
Jimmy forgot about his errand and played in the street. His mother called to him. Jimmy went to the store and then returned to his game.	Jimmy forgot about his errand and played in the street. His mother called angrily to him. Jimmy went to the store quickly and then returned joyfully to his game.

Here the students would undoubtedly say that "angrily" tells how the mother called, and so on.

Now in each case it is clear that the formal aspect will have to receive a further development—demonstrative adjectives will have to be included, which are not so picturesque as "muddy" or "rusty." (The word "demonstrative," of course, need not even be mentioned.) Also, other types of adverbs (those modifying adjectives or other adverbs) will have to be included. Nevertheless, the introduction of the concept is made in a functional manner.

To give another illustration, this time of a syntactical nature: The uses of the noun as a subject or an object are usually presented separately. Greater clarity can be achieved through a presentation of the two jointly. Consider these two sentences:

1. The cat bit the dog.
2. The dog bit the cat.

Through questioning the teacher can get the class to see that "cat" is the tormentor in the first sentence, but the victim in the second. The reverse is true of "dog." "Cat" is a noun, but it is used differently in each sentence. It does the biting, and then receives the bite or it is the object of the bit-

ing. When it does the act, it is called "subject," and when it receives the act, it is called "object."

Perhaps not all items can be presented fully in a functional way, but the creative teacher should be able to devise the best possible procedure. The writer has recommended the technique informally to many teachers, who have employed it to great advantage. It is attested, first, that the stu-

dents grasp grammatical concepts readily and, second, that they see grammar in an entirely different light. Instead of receiving grammatical ideas as a separate discipline, which then has to be linked with language, they see, *ab initio*, grammar in language, grammar making language not only clear but richer.

In this way both understanding and appreciation are assured and enhanced.

Reading Skills of College Entrants

By JOHN R. ANDERSON

THE SUBJECT OF READING is of course many sided and complex. One important long-range aspect around which I should like to build my statements is the relationship between reading ability on the one hand and human creativeness on the other. This will of course include the reading requirements of the college freshman.

First, however, I think it is imperative that I define what I mean by reading. I should like to suggest that reading, in the adult sense, means comprehension and understanding of fairly complex concepts and ideas by means of a single reading, or without the need for compulsive, habitual, or excessive rereading. By any standard, I believe that reading means much more than mere pronunciation of words or of what is referred to as "word calling."

In considering the importance of reading, we are confronted with many authoritative statements that 80 to 90 per cent of all learning depends upon the visual processes, and that 80 to 90 per cent of college work involves reading skills.

Our experience in working with college students for many years and the results of standardized reading tests show that at least 25 per cent of college freshmen are unable to read well enough to do the work successfully. Poor reading is one of the

largest single causes of failure in college. Now this is not to suggest that the students are necessarily unprepared in subject matter, as is so often assumed, but it does mean that never before has success in learning been so heavily dependent upon the ability to read. Satisfactory learning in high school may be accomplished through an intelligent and co-operative interest in what is being said by the teacher and others. In college, the emphasis shifts to what must be read quickly and skillfully.

What may be done to improve and alleviate the problems of the poor reader?

In the same way that there is some misunderstanding concerning the reading act itself, there is also some uncertainty about who should teach reading. Most parents and teachers have long since abandoned the notion that reading should be taught exclusively in the elementary grades; we are beginning to see the importance of the developmental or sequential teaching of the subject. At present, the policy generally being pursued is to add a reading teacher to the high-school faculty. This is undoubtedly an important step forward, but even this will not be the final answer, in my opinion. Who is to do the teaching of reading certainly requires a more comprehensive answer.

Before attempting an answer, I should like to outline some of the elements of good reading or the characteristics or skills of the good adult reader, according to my own developing view of the subject. Basically, of course, the whole personality reads. The chief responsibility of parents is to furnish the type of home life conducive to the child's feeling of security. An anxious child cannot concentrate. In addition, parents must teach the preschool child, during short periods, to control himself and to learn how to sit. A person cannot read and fidget at the same time. Finally, parents should show by precept and example their own regard and respect for reading. This means that reading material is available in the home and used by the members of the family. With respect to the reading act itself, there are three basic elements which I should like to consider.

The first element of good reading has to do with language and vocabulary skills. In this there are three facets. The first is a knowledge of phonics and syllabication, both of which lead to pronunciation skills. The second is a broad knowledge of word meanings and a technique of acquiring this knowledge. The individual with a good vocabulary has a habit of "word awareness" that is essentially unknown to the person who is weak in vocabulary. Word awareness is the habit of associating the meanings of many individual words seen throughout the day with the visual image of the word or with the total picture the word makes. The third facet of vocabulary ability is that of instant and clear recognition of a word when it appears in a reading assignment. Word awareness or word study is a separate function from word recognition, and must precede it. The poor reader, unfortunately, does not separate these functions. He is rarely conscious of seeing a word, unless and until he meets it in a reading assignment. He is then in the awkward position of trying to learn it and read it, all at the same time.

The second basic reading skill has to do with vision or visual habit. The type of visual skill which permits the reader to group the words quickly into meaningful patterns allows him to use expression in his reading. The inner counterpart of expression is comprehension and understanding. The person with a narrow and rigid visual span is confined to reading words instead of ideas. Moreover, some individuals are deterred from practicing this grouping skill because of the failure of the eyes to follow each other and to produce a co-ordinated or overlapped picture. My experience is that there are an alarming number of these visual problems going undetected by routine eye examinations and I do not refer to the visual tests in the public schools.

The third and final basic reading skill is called mental habit and the two separate aspects of it are concentration ability and independent learning-skills. The first of these mental habits, concentration ability, appears to be a function of certain attitudes and habits of personality. Specifically, we should think of concentration as the result of the interaction of personal motivation and the ability to pay attention. Practically everyone recognizes that a motivated or interested person is more attentive, but it should be equally well known that skill in paying attention builds motivation. As I mentioned earlier, individuals who have failed to develop muscular control and who tend to fidget excessively find that their every attention span is being prematurely interrupted, with resulting rereading, loss of time, poor comprehension, lack of confidence, and lack of motivation.

To return momentarily to the question of teaching reading, I am of the opinion that the skills, traits, and habits described up to this point might best be taught by the elementary school teacher and by the specialized reading teacher in the high school. In addition, it appears that in most cases provision for teaching these skills has been made or is in the process. But I wish

to submit and emphasize that there is an important role that the high-school teacher of subject matter must play in the teaching of reading, and if he does not, then the efforts of all of the reading teachers may very well go for naught or be in vain. I am implying that the separate skill referred to previously—that of independent study-type reading, and the teaching thereof—is the responsibility of the teacher of subject matter.

The skill of independent reading and study, within the personality of the individual, is simply a knowledge of how to use the mind to produce and support learning and memory, and is something which can be taught only in conjunction with the subject matter assignments made and required from day to day. I believe that the realization and practice of this principle are real and urgent problems affecting our whole educational and national life.

At a recent conference of leaders from many fields called by the President of the United States on the subject, "America's Human Resources to Meet the Scientific Challenge," the following statement was made: "There is not much sense in motivating a young person for science unless the person is trained to read well, to write well, to listen well."

In acquiring the skill of independent study-type reading, the pupil frequently is allowed to read and understand, as best he can, a topic or chapter, including the freedom to select the main ideas or important facts contained therein. In addition, he is given the sure knowledge that if he makes a sincere and creative effort, some credit will be forthcoming.

The desire to develop proper mental habit in children shows a recognition of the fact that, regardless of all of the efforts of others, the child himself must do the learning and that in the life of each of them there must come a time when he is altogether on his own in the learning act. This, of course, happens generally in the

first year of college, and thereafter. The overriding pre-eminence of the necessity for "self-learning," if you will, prompted Elbert Hubbard to say: "Education is a conquest, not a bequest. It cannot be given; it must be achieved. The value of education lies not in its possession but in the struggle to secure it."

In our program at V.P.I. we have found that many poor readers are not particularly weak in vocabulary or pronunciation skills but are handicapped in the area of mental skills. Their problems are caused primarily because too many of their teachers have done too much of their work for them. Henry Wriston, President Emeritus of Brown University, warns that "spoon-feeding has gone much too far in American education and more responsibility should be placed upon the students."

Unfortunately, the student who is expected to memorize more or less isolated facts in anticipation of taking objective tests is usually not expected to read and recreate in his own mind the broad ideas supporting and surrounding the facts. When this approach is taken, we have lost a vital opportunity to teach reading. If the teacher does the work of selecting important topics and condensing them for rote memory, is he not unwittingly training the child to an undue dependence upon others to make the basic decisions and to perform the basic labor? And is the child not being indoctrinated with the idea that the purpose of school and education revolves around grades and second-guessing the teacher, rather than around his own broad learning and mental maturity?

Mary C. Austin of the School of Education of Harvard University, recently emphasized the importance of developing critical readers for effective study and citizenship and stressed the point that critical thinking is a mental habit to be taught in all subjects, in all grades.

In his book, *Reading and Study*, Yoakam makes the following pertinent observations:

"If the possession of mechanical reading skill in a fair amount were sufficient assurance that a child would possess good habits of study later in life, the teaching of study skills might be omitted and the school be allowed to concentrate on reading as a mechanical process. Such teaching has failed, however, and it is now becoming clear that teaching the child to study is involved in the process of teaching him to read. . . ." Elsewhere in this same book, the author states: "The aim of the good teacher is to make her pupils independent of her. The student who has no self-reliance cannot go far. Hence, it is important that a habit of independence and initiative be formed! This is possible if the teacher will require the student to find answers to his own problems and perform his own tasks."

I should like to suggest that the teacher who teaches isolated facts of his own choosing may be creating the problem of the superior or gifted student. If learning be thus rigidly controlled by the teacher, it is therefore inevitable that all pupils will proceed at the same pace. There is but one pace—the teacher's. If, however, the school is centered upon the goal of mental habit, wherein pupils are allowed to discover and use their own minds, then the potentially superior individual is freed, to an appreciable extent, from the slower pace of the less gifted. I question the need to identify the gifted student if the purpose is to isolate him into yet another teacher-dominated mental strait jacket. I am voicing no opposition to accelerated courses for those who have demonstrated superior capacity; I am concerned solely with the need to give all students the proper training in mental skills and study habits, and the one who probably stands to gain the most by this training is the gifted student. The accelerated teaching of subject matter per se has nothing to do with inculcating proper work habits in children. By the same token, mental alertness on the part of the child has nothing to do with mental skills. The for-

mer is inherent; the latter acquired; if I should ever have to take my choice, I should, without hesitation or reservation, rely upon the one who had been trained to think with whatever kind of a mind God gave him.

In any comprehensive discussion of these problems, however, we must recognize the pervasive and formidable pressure bearing down upon the teacher to do one and only one thing—to teach the child a number of facts that can be efficiently measured. This pressure to reduce learning to the rote memory of concrete facts is regrettable. It derives in part from the overemphasis which many parents place upon the practical or material value of education. This attitude tends to endow the young person with the feeling that education, and particularly college, is a business venture for personal gain, rather than a mental adventure for a life of service. Herein, in my opinion, lie the insidious seeds of anti-intellectualism so rampant in our society today. Let us not fool ourselves: the impediment to good reading runs deep—as deep as man's antipathy to learning and thinking. Someone has aptly said that there is no expedient to which man will not go to avoid the tedium and the labor of thinking. It is my feeling that as long as we, as a people, continue to accept and support a philosophy which exalts the concrete above the abstract, a philosophy which exalts the so-called "practical" above the altruistic, and a philosophy which exalts the educational power of the conditioned reflex above that of human imagination, just so long will we have with us the poor reader, and the likelihood is that his ranks will grow and abound!

Thus, I hope and believe that we have nailed down the source of these undesirable pressures as emanating from man's weaker and uncreative self. Little wonder perhaps that the philosopher, Goethe, expressed himself as follows: "The highest and most excellent thing in man is form-

less, and we must guard against giving it shape in anything save noble deeds." This point of view was also expressed by Albert Einstein in his book *Out of My Later Years*: "The aim [of education] must be the training of independently acting and thinking individuals who, however, see in the service of the community their highest life problem. . . . The development of general ability for independent thinking and judgment should always be placed fore-

most." May I therefore urge that we give the high-school pupil abundant experience and practice in dealing with the general and the abstract and the theoretical because this is what he must do and do well in his later life. Let us give him experience and practice in interpreting, evaluating, and creating thoughts and ideas, as he reads, having in mind our responsibility to develop his intellectual maturity and scholastic independence.

Tommy Learned to Read

By ALLEN H. FISHKEN

MISS CLEARMAN WALKED into her fourth-term English class on this fine October morning and found Tommy standing on the window sill, exhorting the class to revolt. This incident set into motion a whole chain of events which led to Tommy's learning to read, because the real reason he was standing there was the fact that he couldn't. Not a word. I know this is so because Miss Clearman told me so herself, and Miss Clearman not only does not lie, but knows the truth when she sees it.

Miss Clearman, a little prim, a little strait laced, but young in heart, straightened up in her chair and smiled as one smiles at a memory which time has softened and rendered pleasant. We were in her office in the Wilton Vocational High School. I had gone to see her because I was interested in the problem of reading improvement, and she was an expert in this field. My question had been, "What do you consider the outstanding case in your career of helping children to learn to read better?" and she neither paused nor hesitated as she answered, "Tommy Young."

"I suppose I could have sent him to the dean," she went on, "or perhaps given him some kind of punishment; but there was just this feeling that anything like that simply wouldn't do with Tommy. I wanted

to know more about how this came about, and more about Tommy before I went into anything like that, so I just got the class started and went on with the day's work. I'll admit that this sort of thing is a bit extreme, of course, but it was the kind of class in which unusual things could be expected. It was a group of what I suppose you would call 'slow learners' in the sense that their academic achievement was rather limited, but a lot of these kids were bright in a way that is hard to explain, a kind of bright awareness, almost a sensitivity, that no test seems to be able to measure. I guess Tommy was outstanding in this respect; maybe that's why I didn't make an issue over the scene on the window sill. But I spoke to Tommy later in the day. . . ."

Miss Clearman spoke to Tommy later that day, and again on several days after that. She found out many things about him. His mother had been deaf from the time of his birth; his father was a nervous and excitable person, suffering from high blood pressure. He was the youngest of six children, with a considerable age gap between himself and the others. These facts brought many questions to Miss Clearman's mind. Was he an unwanted child, in view of the fact that he was so much younger than the others? Did his parents blame him for the

mother's deafness because it coincided with his birth? Was he considered something of a nuisance by the older children? Did his father's short temper deny him the sympathy and understanding that children need? She was not in a position to find definite answers to these questions, but she could not help wonder what the effect of this strained home situation could have been during Tommy's critical time of adjustment to school, the time he spent in the early grades when his mind should have been free from the tensions that work havoc with the process of learning new and difficult things.

"I must say," Miss Clearman went on, "that I was somewhat relieved to find that Tommy didn't single me out for this sort of performance. He had done the same kind of thing in shop, and the pattern of disrupting class routine was evident in many of the reports teachers had filed in his folder. Taken one by one, I suppose, the incidents would lead to the conclusion that Tommy was just a behavior problem—a general nuisance. But taken all together, they indicated some kind of pattern, some common factor that might explain them all."

"And what was that?"

"Each of the incidents was one in which the work of the class was prevented from following its normal course. You might almost say that Tommy simply did not want the class to get on with what it was supposed to do. Some children do these things to attract attention to themselves. Some do them to get even with the teacher in whom, I suppose, they see the source of their frustration and the cause of their feelings of inadequacy, and it was true that I sensed some of this in Tommy. In one of our later interviews—this was after I had succeeded in gaining some of his confidence—he admitted that he used to think he would like to kill a teacher or a Russian."

That intrigued me. Why this fine discrimination in objects of mayhem? Miss Clearman answered that he equated teacher

with enemy, and so they easily fell into the same category. That seemed reasonable enough.

And so, little by little, Tommy began to confide in this teacher, who was gradually proving herself to be friend instead of foe. One thing was working for Miss Clearman, although she did not say so in so many words; she was a person who worked hard to do her job. There is something about such a teacher that wins the respect of the most recalcitrant pupil. They would undergo the worst form of torture rather than admit it to her, but among themselves they will say "She's tough, but she makes you learn."

"Would you believe that this boy operated a newspaper route without being able to read the names of his customers?" Miss Clearman asked me. "To him, each customer was a house number, and Lord alone knows how he managed the street names. I checked his school records. . . ."

Tommy's record showed that with respect to mental ability he was in the dull normal range, and he had a reading score of sorts. Later tests showed these figures to be without meaning.

"I gave him a verbal, or oral, reading test," she said in answer to my question as to how this could be, "and Tommy could not read even the simplest word. The reading test that had been given him was a printed form test, and Tommy simply guessed at the answers. As far as the intelligence test was concerned, I got him to take a nonverbal test—one that didn't depend on reading ability—and Tommy scored higher than most adults do on the same test. According to this he was of superior intelligence."

"Was there some emotional block, or some deficiency in vision that accounted for his failure to learn to read? All the authorities—A. J. Harris, Gates, Nila Smith, Dolch—list a whole raft of physiological and neurological difficulties for this kind of thing."

Miss Clearman was unable to find out whether any of these things applied to Tommy. "I could tell you of cases where emotional blocks were all too apparent in preventing children from learning to read. But with Tommy—who knows? And in a sense, who cares? I had to get Tommy to learn to read. All the theorizing about this that you have evidently been reading is very useful in its place, and does give a kind of overview of this whole problem of reading difficulty, but when you are dealing with an individual child you simply have to roll up your sleeves and get to work. First, though, I tried to get Tommy in a happier frame of mind with respect to school in general. We changed Tommy's program from woodworking to radio shop, not because we thought radio was necessarily better for him but because the teacher in charge was one who would perhaps understand Tommy better." She smiled ruefully.

The experiment didn't work. They tried again, placing Tommy in a woodworking class again, but with another teacher, one who would give Tommy the support he needed. Other adjustments were made in his program and he was taken out of the regular English class and scheduled into a special reading class.

"But there's still one thing I don't understand," I said to Miss Clearman, "Here I read about the new way of teaching by word recognition, and the old method of phonics, and people like Dolch and Bloomster make studies which show word recognition to be superior for learning to read, and then someone else comes along screaming for the good old days. . . . What is that all about, anyway?"

"I suppose you're referring to the study by Dolch and Bloomster in which they found that a child had to have a mental age of seven or so before he could learn to read by phonics. This is generally true in my own experience. But what we try to do with younger children is to get them to read by recognition, which, incidentally, is

the way that you read until you come to an unfamiliar word. Then we can build on what we have taught so that phonics makes more sense, but don't let anyone ever tell you that phonics has ever been abandoned in teaching children to read."

Miss Clearman started Tommy with a straight diet of Dolch cards. Little by little he began to recognize the symbols that stood for the sounds that he knew so well, and the connection between letters and sounds began to make sense, and pretty soon Tommy could figure out words.

"But more than that," she went on, "and something that gives me an even greater sense of accomplishment, is the fact that Tommy's relations with the other pupils and with his teachers improved steadily. I suppose that he no longer had to cover up for his feelings of inferiority with the other children, or try to avoid detection by the teachers. Tommy progressed pretty well, once he started. Now I'm not going to tell you that he's an avid reader, or that he reads and understands all those amendments and propositions that are printed in such small type on Election Day—I'm not sure that I do myself—but he enjoyed an adapted version of *Sherlock Holmes* when he was in the eighth term, and he can make sense from a newspaper story."

The bell rang and Miss Clearman got up.

"Just one more thing," I said. "How is it that Tommy got through, let's see, almost ten years of school before it was discovered that he couldn't read?"

"That," she replied, "is quite another story. I'm afraid you'll have to study our system of education much more thoroughly than have some of the people who are making all the sweeping indictments of education that we read about these days in the periodicals and the newspapers before you find the answer to that one. And now I really must go or I'll be late for class."

But I think I have caught hold of a big piece of the answer. We need more Miss Clearmans.



Tricks of the Trade



Edited by TED GORDON

WRITING VIA RECORDING: A tape recorder is made available and students use it as a dictaphone. They outline essays, research reports, stories, or any particular idea, then say it into the microphone. The spoken word is later transcribed into written form, then corrected and rewritten. Such a procedure enables many students to "write" much more and with less difficulty than with a pen or typewriter. They learn to "get ideas on paper," and then to edit and rewrite them once they are recorded. Both volume and quality of writing can be increased and, besides being fun, this is the way many writers actually work.—**JACK R. FRYMIER**, Division of Secondary Education, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

PROVOKING PICTURES: To get creative thinking and writing, I cut thought-provoking pictures from a photo magazine and post them in the room, giving the students a choice of several to "interpret" in a paper.—**WILLIAM FILENE, JR.**, Branford High School, Branford, Connecticut.

ARITHMETICULOUS PROBLEMS: Have arithmetic students get the "feel" of dividing by composing division questions (story problems) for their fellow students to solve. Example: "If mother had $\frac{3}{4}$ of a cake and each of my four visitors got equal shares, how much of the $\frac{3}{4}$ did each get?" Such story problems will cause most students to come to recognize a division problem.—**JOHN C. WRIGHT**, Junior High School, Mamaroneck, New York.

BOARD TALK: Don't let chalk boards stay vacant! If your classes aren't using portions of the boards in your room, try filling some of the space with bits of your favorite

poetry, excerpts from famous prose passages, lists of good seasonal books, intriguing bits of fact, or study habits. The trick is as old as blackboards and as modern as subliminal perception. Oh, yes: writing the board fillers on index cards and keeping them on file helps see that you're ready for that empty space when it turns up.—**DON H. OTTO**, East High School, Des Moines, Iowa.

SEATING CHARTS: In an effort to save precious classtime, I have my seating charts made up on 3 by 5 index cards. These I keep in the palm of my hand as soon as the pupils arrive. In this way I have the roll checked even before the late bell rings without the laborious waste of calling pupils' names.—**ALBERT NISSMAN**, Benjamin Franklin Junior High, Mill Creek Parkway, Bristol Township, Pennsylvania.

QUESTION TACTICS: I walk into the room. I say: "Any problem bothering you?" They give me problems. I answer. On the blackboard I write:

- (1) No triviality.
- (2) No gossip.
- (3) No quizzzy questions.
- (4) Only significant questions.

This is in social studies.—**MARTIN WOLFSON**, Brooklyn Technical High School, Brooklyn 17, New York.



EDITOR'S NOTE: Readers are invited to submit aids and devices which may be of help to others. Brief, original ideas are preferred; if an item is not original, be sure to give your source. This publication reserves all rights to material submitted, and no items will be returned. Address contributions to THE CLEARING HOUSE.

About Adolescent Boys and Their Attitudes

By

ROBERT G. ANDREE

THE EXPLORER PROGRAM for Scouting is "all shook up." The University of Michigan and the Boy Scouts of America have completed an outstanding study about the thoughts and needs of adolescent boys, particularly their attitudes and behavior in relation to school and daily life. These findings ought certainly to change the ideas of some educators regarding the content of the curriculum.

School has come to mean less study and more activity for thousands of American boys. They would like to have this process reversed. They want to come to school to study and they want organizational life outside of the school, in sports and in play, but they want it *organized*. Significant changes in extracurricular activities for a large number of boys are certainly in order if the study is trustworthy. Aside from these learning activities in the classroom, two out of every three boys don't find in their

school life very many answers to the things they say they need.

Most boys want to be free of their families. These teen-agers don't hate their parents or any of their close adult associates, but they do want to test their wings. They're not getting the chance in most American high schools, even through the very finest of extracurricular programs. The school could do a lot better for them in trying to arrange satisfactory relationships with their friends and members of the opposite sex. Not many schools, apparently are exploring the serious expectations of boys and girls for each other, and within their own groups, even though this is listed as a very urgent need.

A lot of teen-age boys want to work. What boy was ever flush for long? But many turn down family allowances when independence is jeopardized. When a teen-ager makes more than he has immediate use for, he'll find new ways to spend the money. Some teen-agers are more astute than their friends and actually make investments in stamps, coins, profitable hobbies; some have been known to invest in Junior Achievement and in shares of business and industry.

Two-thirds of most teen-age boy groups say they want to grow up. Given half a chance, they would like to help at home, whether that be an urban or a rural setting. About one out of seven boys feels good when he has a job, particularly if he is contributing to the family income. About one out of five boys feels good when he is doing well in school and is getting good marks, both in academic fields or in related

EDITOR'S NOTE

This is the first article we have had in four years about a constructive educational program for boys. The ideas presented by the author come out of findings of the recent study undertaken by the University of Michigan for the Boy Scouts of America on the thoughts, needs, and perceptions of adolescent boys. Leaders of the Boy Scout movement claim they have benefited greatly by this study, and Dr. Andree, who is superintendent of the Rich Township High School, Park Forest, Illinois, thinks that schools can learn a lot from the study too.

practical and fine arts, where one is able to make or to fix things.

CHANGING THEMSELVES ALONE

Most teen-agers want to do these things alone, however, and the school's role may be just to let them try. Ask most teen-agers how they want to change themselves, and their answers will cover either the improvement of personal appearance, more physical prowess, or simply getting along better with others. One out of eight boys actually would like to be nicer to his family, and one out of five feels he could do a lot better in his social skills. Overall, three out of five boys want to make themselves better and are out to do something about it. A vigorous, positive, constructive program in school could certainly ease the burdens of these efforts. Educators sometimes contend that teen-agers will reject such a program, but this study doesn't support that view.

Better techniques for "sneaking up on the blind side of a teen-ager" by skilled educators may be the most useful way to tackle these problems.

BOYS ARE RESPONSIBLE

In the dizzy societal pace that we conduct, adults tend to think that teen-agers are irresponsible. Often we misunderstand teen-agers' worries because we have our own problems to solve. Actually most teen-agers are responsible and are seeking to use school facilities to the very best advantage. School, for many, is a refuge from home and adults; and the teen-agers are the first to recognize it. More than one out of three boys worries most about passing a subject, getting through school, or doing well in school. Winning the game or making the team takes a back seat in relationship to these other three important problems. Getting a part-time job for income would relieve most of the other worries of teen-age boys because that would buy dates and clothes, and it might lead to better peer acceptance.

Some boys just pick an imaginary ideal to shoot for, but at least two out of three pick a parent or some adult close to the family as a model. What should really shake the educators is that rarely is a teacher listed as a model by teen-agers. It is even more disturbing to discover that adult models are picked because of their good personality, or for ability to do things; because they have prestige and position in their own work. These are things we like to think teachers have, and it may be that we must strive hard in the decade ahead to work for changes that will make teachers heroes in the eyes of teen-agers.

Three out of four boys are very much concerned about educational decisions and plans. A considerable number worry whether they can or will go to college, and an equal number are concerned with their careers and/or their jobs—just making a living. What educators do to create an atmosphere conducive to solving these needs can have a tremendous impact on the next generation.

BOYS HAVE IDEALS

In spite of the mass of information on adolescent rebellion, the framework of obedience among teen-age boys is not completely broken down. Two out of three would follow parental instructions either just to be obedient or because they had promised their parents that they would do a certain thing, i.e., be home at a certain time. Only one out of five appeared to be willing to break his promise or ideal and hang around with the boys a little longer. Many teen-agers agreed to disagree with their parents (according to this study) and think their parents are terribly old fashioned on control of hours and what a teen-ager needs to do in his spare time. But they accept deprivation of privileges as being one way to be punished for wrongdoing, and object more to a psychological punishment than to a physical. Some educators might very well eliminate medieval and

inane punishments which now take place in some schools. Recently I interviewed a teaching candidate who was judged to be one of the finest in his present school. He admitted openly that he had paddled "at least 125 high-school students in the past four months." Actually in this high school students kept book on the number of paddlings and the winner received 10 cents a slug from the others' wager pool.

"WASTING TIME"

Since one of the major arguments with parents is the teen-ager's use of leisure time, it is interesting to note what activities form a part of boys' lives. Swimming and roller skating are two popular individual sports, closely followed by skiing, ice skating, and horseback riding. In outdoor activities boys like to fish and hunt, and camp or hike. At their social activities they like parties and dancing. They spend a lot of time in the movies or listening to radio, records, TV; and an inordinate amount of time playing cards and games, or just meeting their friends at the corner drugstore. It may surprise educators to know that "reading for recreation" is eighth in rank order for thirty-one items, a recreation which many teachers may not suspect existed.

About two out of three boys belong to no organization outside but do have a significant number of activities. Sixty per cent say they're too busy or have other things to do. Another 37 per cent just don't like clubs or for some reason exclude organizational activity because of personal preference. These too must have the attention of educators because constructive pupil-centered activities can attract those who have no activity now.

SOME STEPS IN A CONSTRUCTIVE PROGRAM

If teen-age boys abandon school activities because they are school connected, there must be some way to bring in community organizations willing to help teen-agers meet worries and self-recognized deficiencies, real or otherwise. Educators would do well to investigate the new Boy Scouts of America Explorer Program as one step in a constructive approach.

The recency of this study (1956) makes its ideas current for planning a program that will have real meaning for the sixteen- to eighteen-year-old group. Most teen-agers are responsible, having ideals, apparently wasting time only in adult eyes, but actually working hard to improve their own personalities, their status, their school achievement, and their position in the society which often rejects them.

Most teen-agers are not delinquents; they are responsible young adults. W. C. Kvaraceus recognized our problem when he wrote: "They [juveniles] are becoming scapegoats in a society which is running out of other people to hate. The older generation's complaints about youngsters are 'universal and timeless' but have become more acute in the rapid change of recent years."

Let educators take note that this responsible study* has given us additional clues to the desires of teen-age boys, and may have actually furnished us with ammunition for a renewed and constructive school program.

* *A Study of Adolescent Boys*, a study conducted by the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, for the National Council of the Boy Scouts of America. New Brunswick, New Jersey: 186 pages, 1955, \$2.00 (paperbound).

Quite obviously it seems that if the teacher is to help develop children who are incapable of hate, children of good will, she must start with an examination of her own attitudes, understandings, and behavior. She must prepare herself. She should begin with an understanding of the meaning of prejudice.—
DEBORAH CANNON PARTRIDGE in the *School Executive*.

Junior High School Students Reflect on **THE IDEAL TEACHER**

By HARRY H. MATLACK

How DO JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL boys and girls picture their ideal teacher? Is it important to care what they think? Anything that gives us clearer insight into the minds and hearts of our young adolescents is worth while, since our ability as teachers is to a great extent directly proportionate to our understanding of those we teach.

Yes, it is important that we care what our pupils think. Their reflections on "the ideal teacher" should help us understand them better and perhaps, in the light of their naïve wisdom, give us pause to re-evaluate our own concepts of classroom management.

Four ninth-grade classes in a Philadelphia junior high school were asked to describe the qualifications of an ideal teacher. About 130 papers were turned in and excerpts are included from each class. Aside from two or three paragraphs where editing

was done to clarify a thought, no changes have been made in the selections from the papers.

Nearly all students stressed at least two of these three ideas—the need for strictness, the importance of humor, and ability to teach.

STRICTNESS

Many pupils stated that without order and peace in the room, little learning took place. Again and again they wrote that the best teachers were the strict ones.

Dorothy was probably surprised at her own analysis: "Teachers come and teachers go. . . . Some are remembered, but most are quickly forgotten. The particular ones I remember are those who have been most strict."

Judy continues: "Teachers should let their personalities peep through a little. On the other hand, I believe that they should be strict. If there is one thing I deplore in a teacher, it is letting the pupils get out of hand. Many teachers I have known in the past have not been able to control their classes. A teacher who does not know how to control the class is not respected. I would much rather have a teacher who is too strict than one not strict at all."

Joe is laconic: "I feel that if a teacher has the need to make certain threats, she should have the courage of her convictions and follow through."

HUMOR

Along with strictness, the pupils feel that a sense of humor is important. Lucille is the school president. "In my opinion, an ideal teacher is one who can combine

EDITOR'S NOTE

Here is a condensation of a bulletin written by the author, who is consulting teacher in the Philadelphia public schools and managing editor of the News Letter of the Philadelphia Teachers Association. The purpose of the bulletin was to help the new teachers joining junior-high-school staffs. The opinions and judgments reported here come from ninth-grade students at Wilson Junior High School, who were asked by Mr. Matlack to describe candidly their conception of an ideal junior-high-school teacher. We are grateful to Clayton E. Buell, a member of CH's editorial board, for his talent scouting in the Philadelphia area.

strictness with humor. I do not mean one who puts on a show, but a person who can smile readily and divert our minds from the 'daily grind' for just a few minutes and still make us work."

James adds this comment: "A teacher must be a careful mixture of good humor, fairness, lots of teaching ability, and a touch of strictness to reach perfection."

Hubert, who wasn't born in this country, says: "The teacher must at any time tell a joke to relieve the mind and refresh the children. But telling jokes over and over again, it becomes stale. The teacher cannot do all the time joking, because then the children won't have learned anything in school but jokes."

Sandra has a specific person in mind: "I think he has an excellent sense of humor and is very easy to get along with. He can give you an assignment and say something amusing about it. When he teaches in class, he always has a smile, that is, unless he gets angry, which is not very often. As a teacher, he rates at the top."

TEACHING ABILITY

Boys and girls are not primarily concerned with teaching methods. They consider the ability to teach well an attribute not possessed by all teachers. It seems to include an eager desire to share learning. Drill is there—and patience—and tests that seem just hard enough to pass only if one studies.

Beth says: "Her teaching is so good because she knows how to mix work with fun. She explains clearly, so you can do it easily, and at the same time does not go too fast. Her tests are not hard because she always goes over the work thoroughly. Yes, I think she is one of the best teachers I have ever had."

Gail imagines herself a teacher: "A thorough knowledge of the subject I am teaching will help make it easier for me to teach. I will try to apply facts to something that happens every day to the pupils.

Teaching this way makes it easier for the average student."

Gordon senses an indefinable something: "I believe something which helps a teacher win his students is the atmosphere the teacher himself puts into the room. I have been in rooms where the class was hushed and tense. Then there were others where the students were alert but comfortable. I find it easier to learn in this atmosphere."

Don't be afraid of mistakes. Carrie feels this to be important advice: "Many teachers have the idea that if they make a mistake or do not know the answer to a question that was asked, they can talk their way out of it. Never. A student always knows when you don't know. Be frank. Simply say, 'I am sorry. I don't know. I could find out for you by tomorrow.'"

John senses a good teaching method: "In class I think a teacher should be sure he hears from every child in the room as often as possible. Many times a person does not understand and he is afraid to raise his hand."

UNDERSTANDING

The growing adolescent is often easily upset. He is throwing off the childhood yoke, seeking lighter reins in adult hands. He wants understanding and sympathy, not softness. He wants broader rules, but still rules which must be followed.

Karen puts it rather well: "By understanding, I mean knowing how to cope with each problem in a firm yet fair way."

Lorna uses an example: "Children as well as adults need a little understanding. They like to think that the teacher has an interest in them. From personal experience, I know how one teacher's personality works. Feeling like a nervous wreck, I got up to say a poem. Getting through a couple of lines, I began to get too nervous to show expression. Instead of letting me continue, he stopped me without being rude and showed me how it should be done. Then he gave me another chance—a chance to improve

myself, and to raise my mark. Personal interest and strong discipline are what a pupil looks for in an ideal teacher."

RESPECT

Respect is an attribute which must be earned. Pupils all know what it is and regard it highly. A teacher is not a "pal" and pupils have no wish to make him one. Understanding and sympathy are needed, true, but adolescents wish it to be at the adult level. A thin wall of dignity helps to maintain the respect boys and girls wish adults to demand.

Ronnie explains the idea of respect in one sentence: "A teacher should stay above me and I do not want him to descend to my level."

Roslyn writes rather romantically: "When a teacher gains the respect of his students at the beginning of the term he is very lucky and is sure the students will have fond memories of him in later years."

Jeff is slangy and full of advice: "No one likes a push over. You may think you do but you really don't. You don't learn anything and it won't help you in the long run. Respect for the teacher is an important thing. If you have no respect for him you probably will learn little."

TEACHER'S PETS

Several pupils discussed "teacher's pets." Most of them thought that the showing of favoritism was intentional. The realization that acts of this nature can be thoughtless rather than deliberate was brought out by Susan. She says: "Favoritism is something

which is resented by the 'neglected one' as well as the 'favorite.' A good many times this favoritism is carried on by teachers who are unaware of their actions. But the fact remains they cause hard feelings among the students."

Fran cites an example as she saw it: "A friend of mine had a teacher who would yell at her for changing her seat. On the other hand, he never said a word to three other girls who had changed their seats. This is wrong and the people who are slighted will grow to dislike this teacher as time goes on."

PRAISE

Not too many pupils discussed the importance of praise but those who did felt rather strongly about it. Janice has to work hard for everything she gets. She wrote a page and a half on this topic. Here is a brief passage: "When someone is complimented, and told how good a thing is, it gives her spirit. The next time she has to do it, she is happy; she has an objective, a goal. Just a few words from her teacher and she is in heaven."

Phyllis is more general: "If the teacher would give praise to his class once in a while, he might find much better work habits and attention."

Mary refers to a specific person: "He gives praise when it is due and when he criticizes or scolds he does it in such a way that you do not feel hurt or angry."

And finally this solitary gem, an unintentional proverb from Tom: "An old grouch discourages learning even more than a grouch."



The teacher who would *direct* the learning of his students, rather than *coerce* it, must know a secret about discipline. He must know the difference between behavior which is brought about by the willing cooperation of his students, and that which is induced by punishment, or the threat of it. That difference is the whole difference as to whether real learning or artificial learning takes place.—MARY E. HUFFSTUTLER in *School and Community*.

Discipline and Common Sense

By WILLIAM W. WEST

IN *Northwest Passage*, Kenneth Roberts describes an enlightened and progressive example of discipline on the part of Major Robert Rogers during his famed 1759 expedition from Crown Point against St. Francis. With his 200 men deep in Indian territory, Rogers selected thirteen friendly Mohawks to reconnoiter north toward the Otter River. The scouts reported seeing nothing, Rogers and his men advanced—and the expedition narrowly escaped massacre by a large force of French.

Bitterly angry, Rogers' men cursed the "treacherous" redskins and looked forward to seeing them severely punished.

Rogers, however, calmly called the Mohawks together and politely asked for an explanation. The Indian leader, a redskin called Captain Jacobs, said, in effect:

We came to Crown Point, not because we wanted to but because Sir William Johnson sent us.

We did not plan to come on an expedition farther north.

We decided we didn't want to scout, so we came back.

Instead of shooting—or even flogging—the renegades, Rogers sent them back unpunished to Crown Point!

EDITOR'S NOTE

Here we have some writing which has little "water" in it and makes an extremely strong impression. We wondered about the analogy between Indians and students, and you may wonder about it too. But it all adds up to sense, and we hope that you will get some good out of the article. The author, formerly chairman of the department of English, Horlick High School, Racine, Wisconsin, is now an editor for D. C. Heath and Company, Boston.

In most modern high-school classes, at least a few "students" can plead exactly as did the Indians:

(1) We were sent to school; we didn't want to come.

(2) We came—but we certainly didn't want to go "farther north"—into Shakespeare or algebra or economics.

(3) We decided we didn't want to work, so we sit.

Faced with this group of "resistant learners," most teachers are inclined to fume and make life miserable for the renegades—if not to curse and punish them.

Yet each teacher, upon examining the situation closely, will find that he has Rogers' reasons for forbearance:

(1) The nonperformers have goals different from those of the main group and the leader.

(2) The nonperformers do not understand the direction, the purpose, the method, or the group culture of the main body and the leader.

(3) The nonperformers are not part of the group.

(4) The nonperformers have not submitted to the self-discipline or social discipline of the group situation.

"Fine!" responds a teacher. "I'll willingly share Major Rogers' interpretation if I can also share his solution. I won't fume and make life miserable for the renegades—if I can get rid of them."

Herein lies the differences between Rogers' position and ours. His invasion of Indian country was an immediate life-and-death matter. He had no time to analyze, to reorganize, to re-educate, or to consolidate his group.

Our main job, also a life-and-death matter—although not so immediately—is to do those very things. We *must* analyze, re-

organize, re-educate, and consolidate our groups—in order to stimulate individual progress. Had Rogers been in a training camp situation, his emphasis would have been not upon punishment, not upon separation, but upon unifying his group.

Bringing the nonperformers into the group *may* not be accomplished through acceptance, courtesy, kindness, and stimulation. It certainly *can never* be accomplished through force, punishment, or harassment. Demanding completion of each assignment—even though the student does not accept its purposes as his own or recognize the self-discipline and social discipline of the group—may fill each square in the grade book, but it won't lead the resistant learner into the group.

"I'd like not to nag the resistant learners," pleads a teacher, "but if I don't demand that they do every assignment, the morale of my regulars will suffer."

Perhaps it's a question of which will harm the regulars more—the daily un-

pleasantness of trying to make the resistant learners perform, or the friendliness, encouragement, courtesy, kindness, and acceptance for all, together with "reward" for accomplishment and quiet failure for nonperformance. Of course we *want* all students to complete all assignments, but we're more likely to reach this goal if we temper our assignments not only with respect to capacity and interest but also with regard to motivation and goal of individual students.

A final reason for Rogers' having withheld punishment and for his having treated his Indians with respect: he couldn't afford to antagonize them and their tribe; he needed all the friends he could get.

As teachers, with education under attack and with our educational system making necessary but unprecedented tax demands, we too must have all the friends we can get.

We must keep even our Indians on friendly terms with us.



Integration and Residential Segregation

Most public schools are neighborhood schools and they reflect, therefore, the racial and ethnic composition of the districts in which they are located. Segregated schools in Northern cities are largely a consequence of residential segregation—although this condition is often reinforced by a history of gerrymandered school district lines and restrictive covenants.

It is a mistake to assume, however, that plans for integration must await the elimination of residential segregation. Too many school boards have permitted the persistence of residential segregation to block consideration of plans designed to remove its impact on the educational process. School boards are not responsible for the creation and persistence of residential segregation; they are, however, responsible for providing the leadership and initiative necessary for the establishment and execution of programs that will eliminate the problems that residential segregation has imposed on public education.

Nor should school officials be permitted to evade responsibility for establishing integrated education by "delegating" authority for the construction and execution of integration programs to interested civic and community relations organizations. It is obviously desirable that community groups participate in integration programming but, without official status and sanction, they may retard rather than advance its acceptance and application. In addition, this tactic often permits school boards to reject such plans as are submitted to them by civic organizations without accepting any official responsibility for recommending or producing alternative plans or solutions.

In the interest of achieving effective and responsible integration, it is necessary that school officials acknowledge and accept their obligation to explore and eliminate all vestiges of segregated education.—DON J. HAGER in the *Journal of Educational Sociology*.

Events & Opinion

LENGTHENING THE SCHOOL DAY: The question of the school program equated in terms of time has been the source of endless debate, resulting in no one acceptable answer. Current pressures on the schools have revived the advocacy of a longer school day, suggesting that the schools emulate the business day of nine to five. Recently, Dr. Lloyd E. Blanch, assistant commissioner for higher education of the United States Office of Education, proposed that both students and teachers should work a "full day" with both doing all their homework at school. Such a plan, he contends, would permit a great increase in the schools' efficiency and effectiveness.

Dr. Blanch believes the school would provide the best environment for homework. Everyone would be doing the same thing; there would be supervision; and reference books would be available. He feels, too, that many students are at a disadvantage under the present system because their homes offer neither places for study nor atmospheres conducive to it. In addition, a longer school day will give counselors a chance to get in much more work with students, and the schools' work would be less nerve-racking because it could be done at a more leisurely pace in a more commodious day.

Obviously, mixed reactions greeted this proposal, according to the *New York Times*, which reported Dr. Blanch's suggestion. Teachers objected that it would mean more work for them and would have a serious effect upon their varied out-of-school jobs. Those educators who believe the schools should perform a custodial function regarded the proposal with favor. In suburban areas, it was pointed out, there are many other and often useful demands on children's time. One dissenter argued, however, that a well-planned full

school day might serve a child's interests better than some of the "overorganized, overscheduled" activities now run by suburban parents.

A GLOSSARY FOR PEDAGOGUES: A recent issue of the *Los Angeles School Journal* contained an effort by Harry Bernard Plant to clarify the conversation for those who, willingly or not, listen to the shop talk of pedagogues—a partial glossary. Keeping in mind the old axiom that many a word of truth is spoken in a moment of jest, we offer a sampling of Plant's interpretations:

Adjusting Standards to Individual Needs: Figuring out some way to pass the kid.

Audio-Visual Aid: Something which can be heard or seen, but rarely found.

Challenge: Difficult situation; *Real Challenge:* Impossible situation.

Enrichment: Extra work for somebody.

Professional Attitude: 1. Largely administrative version: A teacher's asking for extra duties. 2. Teachers' version: Asking for a raise.

GEOGRAPHY THE UNKNOWN: A report issued in May by the National Education Association urged the modernization of geography instruction and its restoration to this country's school system. It contended that in American schools today geography was but "the remnant of what was once a unified subject . . . sometimes taught by teachers with no training in geography at all."

By contrast, the report stated, geography occupies an important place in Soviet schools. Students there devote to it two or three hours a week for six successive years and are taught by specialists in the field. In this country, geography has disappeared largely in the upper grade levels. The re-

port, issued by the National Council for the Social Studies, contended that the space age had invalidated many concepts of physical geography and held that school children today need to be instructed in human, economic, and regional geography.

THE COMFORT OF SMALLNESS: Amid innumerable statistical reports which we receive, covering all phases of our vast educational system, one item had a refreshing effect upon us. It was a snapshot of the graduating class of 1959 at Block Island, Rhode Island, three students posing with their school superintendent, John F. Eldridge. At a time when most schools seem to be experiencing an ever expanding school population, Block Island serves as an antidote for bigness. Its school graduated thirty-five students over the past ten years.

AMERICAN PEOPLE AND THEIR SCHOOLS: To answer the question, "What do the American people really think about their schools?" the National Education Association's research division a short time ago compiled and digested reports of all major public opinion polls made on the subject. Five significant areas of comment were evident:

(1) A strong endorsement of the goals of American education: to create an enlightened citizenry and to provide all children with an education appropriate to them as individuals.

(2) A lack of general agreement on what should be done to remedy curricular deficiencies.

(3) A conviction that the value of practical training is greater than liberal education.

(4) Evidence that educators are more demanding of American education than is the general public.

(5) An overwhelming majority opinion in favor of federal financial support. For details, see "Public Opinion Polls on Amer-

ican Education," published by the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. Single copy, 15 cents.

A NATIONAL YOUTH CONSERVATION CORPS: The *Phi Delta Kappan* recently commented editorially on the suggestion offered by Senator Hubert Humphrey for the creation of a modern conservation corps composed of those youths beyond the help of the schools. In fact, it considered the senator's proposal most worthy of our attention. This is the essence of Humphrey's plan:

1. An up-to-date CCC, to be called a Youth Conservation Corps, that would stop the appalling waste of our youth resources by using them to stop the equally outrageous dissipation of our soil and water resources.

2. To use in this corps up to 150,000 young men—dropouts from high school (sixteen or older) and a portion of the non-college-going high-school graduates who now flow directly into a somewhat inhospitable labor market—in body-building, self-respect-building, creative, useful labor.

3. To make the program flexible and education oriented, setting aside some 20 per cent of the time for education and using the facilities of local schools.

4. To place the program under the direction of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare working with various other departments and agencies of state and national government.

5. To enroll young men (maybe even young women, under a separate program) for one-year hitches at about the current army private's pay (\$78 a month), plus subsistence, medical care, and certain fringe benefits.

Congress will consider this proposal which has been praised by juvenile court authorities, social welfare people, and conservation officials.

JOSEPH GREEN

SOVIET EDUCATORS:

What Do They Want to Know About American Education?

By

ALLEN W. CHAPLINE

MANY AMERICAN EDUCATORS are keenly concerned about education in the Soviet Union. What we may not realize is that Russian educators are also deeply interested in American education and are extremely curious to ascertain what progress we have been making in this vital area.

These facts were impressed on me during a two-hour question-and-answer session on American education, which I unwittingly found myself conducting with twenty-five Soviet education specialists in Moscow in July, 1958. Intoursist, the official travel agency in the Soviet Union, had arranged for me to visit an assistant to Professor V. A. Veikshan, director of comparative education in the Institute of History and Theory of Education in Moscow. When I arrived at the Ushinsky State Library, which houses the institute, in addition to Veikshan's assistant, I found a room crowded with Russian educators, eagerly waiting to ask me questions about American education.

EDITOR'S NOTE

To paraphrase, "Veni, vidi, vici," we might say that the author went, saw, and understood. Are Soviet educators interested in American education? "Yes indeed," claims the author, who is a member of the faculty of Teachers College, Temple University, in Philadelphia. He visited the Soviet Union a year ago this summer, and this is the story of his visit.

Fortunately, I had been accompanied into Russia by the Finnish leader of our tour. Besides having a knowledge of both English and Russian, she was also a secondary school teacher of languages in Helsinki. Although perhaps 20 per cent of the Russian educators present spoke some English, I found my interpreter's background of experience in both languages and secondary education of inestimable value in establishing clear communication.

The questions I was asked were both general and specific. Many of the former centered around the structure and organization of our educational system. They wanted to know how a system so loosely and diversely organized could possibly produce desirable results. When I explained that we believed that unity could arise from educational diversity, many of them smiled and chuckled with disbelief. They were also interested in knowing in what direction education was moving in America. I explained that we were in a state of transition and that to assess this objectively was extremely difficult, if not impossible.

"Don't your leaders and your educational experts know?" they persisted.

I stated that local leaders might have a good idea of their state systems, but that I was doubtful if a general over-all national appraisal were possible at this time. Their reaction was to look at one another and to shake their heads in apparent disgust.

Finally, they wanted to know how we could consider our system of education as

free, when students, in many schools, had to pay for their books and transportation. How could we call our education free when so many students were unable to attend college because of financial difficulties? I pointed out that we recognized these problems, and were making some progress in resolving them.

"Why doesn't the government help out here?" one of them asked.

I pointed out that our schools were locally rather than federally supported and controlled, and that federal aid bills, although favored by some, were often strongly opposed. (The National Defense Education Act of 1958 had not gone into effect at that time.)

Group dynamics was a specific area in which many of the Russians showed special interest. They wanted to find out the extent to which we were applying its principles in schools and colleges; what purpose it served for us; and how effective it had proved. They were particularly curious about sociometry, both in theory and in application. One Russian educator showed considerable understanding in this area, but other members displayed rather superficial knowledge of these subjects. They were also concerned with the status of progressive education in America. I pointed out that it had been under sharp attack in the past few years, but that many of its contributions had become an integral part of the American educational pattern. During the discussion, they pointed out that they had tried progressive educational ideas in the 1920's and had found them to be a dismal failure.

In addition to asking questions on group dynamics and progressive education, several Russians seemed interested in finding out the extent to which our educational methods and practice are based on modern psychological and sociological principles. They asked if we believed strongly in a behavioristic theory of learning, and how much importance we attached to Pavlov's

experiments with dogs. Later, in Lenin-grad, at the Pavlov Institute, when I saw the extensive work being conducted with these animals, the significance of this question become more apparent. We were told at the institute that conditioning was the accepted psychological concept in the U.S.S.R.

Before the interview terminated, several educators asked how it might be possible to receive more books and curriculum materials on American education. They said that they were extremely limited in being able to use dollars for purchasing these items, and they wondered if American educators would be willing to exchange their materials for those of the Russians. One of the officials in the group mentioned that each Russian present was responsible for studying education in a particular part of the world, and it was of vital interest to them to keep abreast of educational developments, not only in America but throughout the world.

This information hints at how highly organized and how widely focused the Soviet educational system has become. Furthermore, it indicates the tremendous interest which the Soviets have in education and the genuine desire they manifest for progress and improvement in this area.

My general impressions drawn from the above-mentioned interview may be significant. In the first place, I was struck with the keen interest and curiosity shown by these Russians in American education. They seemed genuinely interested in trying to understand how we were going about things, and appeared eager to examine carefully and in detail the things we have been doing in education. This manifested interest appeared directed toward a concerted effort to improve their own educational system. They were constantly making comparisons between our type of education and their own. Their motive in doing this was apparent: to consider appropriate things for possible adoption.

In the second place, their inability to understand or accept most of the answers which I gave to their questions may indicate the tremendous cultural differences underlying education in the two countries. Their value system, their political economic structure, and their historical background vary widely from our own. Their perceptions of education, like our own, are tailored to fit a particular frame of reference. Consequently, it may be wishful thinking to expect them to understand our orientation and to accept our basic assumptions.

Finally, since "All schools in the Soviet Union are state schools . . . and standards are the same for all schools in the

U.S.S.R.,"* an educational system based on local administration and control such as ours may have little or no real meaning for Russian educators, in a very practical sense. Despite these limitations, educational co-operation between America and the Soviet Union is vital, particularly at this moment in history. We must co-operate with the Russians in this and other crucial areas if we are to crack the "iron curtain" of disagreement, intolerance, and misunderstanding which exists between the two nations.

* M. Deineko, "Public Education in the USSR," p. 11. (Booklet, given to me by the group, and published by the USSR in 1956.)



Afternoon in the Animal Kingdom

By A. S. FLAUMENHAFT

Brooklyn, New York

Distressed with human ballyhoo,
I sought asylum in the zoo;

Beheld the stately lion blinking,
Contemplating space and thinking,

The monkeys scampering and squealing,
(An excess, doubtless, of good feeling),

A hippopotamus keeping school
With his young offspring in the pool,

A zebra filly and her mother
Nuzzling hay and one another;

No senseless strife and striving here,
No gold and glory—and no fear.

A man can learn a thing or two
Of peaceful living in the zoo.

Australia's Secondary Schools Are Not Regarded as Exemplary

By

A. L. McLEOD

IN THE POST-SPUTNIK REASSESSMENT of United States high-school education, many people have thought that the secondary education systems of other countries might well provide some guide for reorganizing what they believe to be an unsatisfactory system here. Because the British Commonwealth countries have much in common with the United States, whereas the European countries don't, it has been often suggested that America should examine, with

a view to adoption, the systems of secondary education in Britain, Australia, and New Zealand.

Unfortunately, however, these systems have little to offer us. British education is predicated upon the belief that a small intellectual elite should be thoroughly educated in the classical-humanist tradition and the rest should be given a less intense, more practical, general schooling. That is, the British system of higher education is designed to provide both high-quality education for a few and low-quality education for the many. American education, on the other hand, is designed to provide roughly equal educational opportunity—and fare—for all. The Australian system of secondary education is somewhat of a compromise between the British and the American systems; yet, like most compromises, it is not markedly satisfactory.

In Australia education from kindergarten to university is the responsibility of the individual states. Each of the six states has a department of education under the control of a minister of its parliament. He decides general policy and has a permanent director-general of education to implement it for the government. The director-general is usually assisted by directors of primary education, secondary education, teacher training, adult education, and technical education. They, in turn, have assistants with delegated responsibilities. The state education departments, under the directors-general, train all teachers in the state school systems.

Secondary teachers normally take three or four years' training. The universities train teachers of academic subjects for

EDITOR'S NOTE

The Clearing House publishes manuscripts on education and schools in other countries because the editors feel there is much need for enlightenment on comparative education. Traditionally, we have been so concerned with problems which beset us in our own country that we haven't had much time to find out what education is like in Pakistan, the Soviet Union, France, Holland, or whatever foreign country you may care to name. This is the first time we have had an article on the educational system of a whole continent. What's more, the writer was brought up and became a teacher in this continent—Australia. He is a graduate of the University of Sydney, the University of Melbourne, and has his Ph.D. in speech from the Pennsylvania State University. He has taught in high schools in Sydney and in New South Wales and was lecturer in English at two New South Wales teachers colleges before becoming associate professor of speech in the State University Teachers College at Fredonia, New York. How do our schools stack up against the Australian schools? Are you interested in finding out? We hope so.

three years and then each teachers college provides a one-year diploma in an education course which covers teaching methods, educational psychology, history of education, and school hygiene. Teachers of crafts, woodwork, and metalwork are given three-year courses at technical colleges, art teachers take their training at the technical colleges, and physical education teachers take four-year courses at the Sydney Teachers College or Melbourne University. All teacher trainees are given scholarships which provide free tuition and, if the student is obliged to live away from home during his training, a substantial living allowance. In return, however, students are required to enter into a bond with the state education department to serve anywhere in the state for a period of at least five years.

Teachers have no say in where they will teach and are paid according to a state-wide uniform salary scale, which takes into account years of training and years of service. Women teachers are paid only 85 per cent of men's rates. Salary is paid bi-weekly on a twelve-month basis.

Only those teachers who have been trained in the universities obtain degrees. The teachers colleges are not chartered to grant degrees, and if an elementary school teacher (who is trained for only two years) subsequently wants to take a B.A. degree at a university, his teachers college course is given *no* credit toward his university degree. Those teachers in secondary schools who teach art, music, physical education, commercial subjects, and shop courses do not have degrees.

After appointment to schools, all teachers are examined for teaching efficiency every two years. Failure to satisfy the inspector of schools could result in dismissal. Before a teacher can qualify for promotion to subject master (i.e., chairman of a department) he must have taught for at least ten years. Only subject masters are eligible for promotion to deputy principal of a school,

and only deputy principals can become principals. The seniority rule is very strictly adhered to. A further complication is introduced by the grading of schools, so that country district schools are generally "B" class schools and city schools are "A" class. Before a subject master can become a deputy principal, he must serve in both "A" and "B" class schools.

The effect is that anyone interested in promotion must be prepared to make at least six additional transfers during his teaching career. The average Australian high-school teacher teaches in fourteen schools in his career.

Secondary education in Australia is obligatory to the age of fourteen in some states and to fifteen in the others. There has been desultory agitation to raise the leaving age to sixteen, but financially bothered state governments have deferred the raising of the leaving age.

At the end of elementary ("primary") school, students are given a series of tests which determine their I.Q.'s. Those with 120 or better are sent to high schools. The others, depending on their test scores, are distributed among junior high schools and junior technical schools in the case of boys, and among home science schools and central schools in the case of girls. In all the major cities, girls and boys are segregated for secondary education, though they are taught in the same classrooms in country areas.

The high school can be of several kinds: high schools proper, which are akin to grammar schools and provide the traditional academic curriculum aimed at university entrance; agricultural high schools, which provide the usual academic curriculum but have additional offerings designed for those who would like to enter university agricultural schools; technical high schools, which specialize in the sciences, technical drawing, and advanced metalwork; home science high schools, which allow superior girl students to take foreign languages, nu-

trition, biology, art, needlework, physiology, and similar subjects.

In the high schools students are required to take at least one language for the full five years of the course, and another for three years. English is compulsory for five years and, to be graduated, students must pass a state-set and state education department-graded examination in English and three other subjects. To matriculate to a university, high-school students must pass in English and four other subjects. Many of the subjects offered at high school are unacceptable to the universities: e.g., art, needlework, cookery, typing and business principles, wool classing, metalwork, woodwork. Only recently were ancient history and economics acceptable!

A cursory look at the leaving certificate examination papers (as the graduating examination is called) would suggest that very high standards are expected. Many of the questions would seem too difficult for American college sophomores. But only 75 per cent of students pass the leaving certificate (i.e., pass in four or more subjects) and the standard of pass is often as low as 40 per cent. Those who pass the leaving certificate but who fail to matriculate (i.e., to pass in five subjects) usually enter teachers colleges, where the admission standards are lower. In fact, one high-school graduate in six enters teaching.

The curriculums in the high schools are largely written by the universities—since high-school education is seen principally as university preparatory work. There are few “modern” subjects. Greek and Latin persist, though they are disappearing. French and German are commonly available, though few students elect German, and the standard of French is low. Spanish is not offered. Boys are not offered biology, botany, or physiology. Girls cannot take mechanics, technical drawing, or physics. Boys do not take art, and few schools offer music.

Only a minority of students attend the high schools. The others attend the junior

highs, the junior technical schools, and the home science schools.

These schools, generally known as “secondary schools,” teach from syllabuses that are watered-down versions of the high school syllabuses. Accordingly, even a child with an I.Q. of 85 is expected to take algebra and geometry for three years! And he is not offered driver training, even though, in all probability, he will become a truck driver! The stigma attached to attending a junior technical school or a home science school is quite considerable: the child is publicly known to be less than bright. One might, in fact, well question the morality of segregating children at age twelve into “bright” and “retarded” learners.

Moreover, the curriculums offered in these schools are so arranged that a student, having completed his three years with some promise, is at a severe disadvantage when he transfers to the high school for his final two years’ work leading to the leaving certificate. The effect is that unless a child is selected for high school after his elementary education, he has almost no chance to enter a university and then the professions.

A Royal Commission into Secondary Education in New South Wales (the capital of which is Sydney) recommended, as recently as 1958, the development of the comprehensive school that is found in the United States. It suggested coeducation of boys and girls, the introduction of the multicurriculum school, and the centralization of small schools. It also suggested the development of completely new curriculums for the less gifted children and the teaching of speech and drama.

In regard to the provision of material aids to education, Australia is extremely backward. Most of the school buildings are archaic. Those of recent vintage are, generally, built of frame construction in single-room units. Though the weather gets down to thirty-five degrees, there is no central heating, and though the summer school days

reach 100 degrees there is no air conditioning. The director-general of education in N.S.W., Dr. Harold S. Wyndham, a Columbia Teachers College graduate, recently recommended the installation of electric lights in schools!

In New South Wales, with three million people, only forty schools have gymnasiums, out of a total of about 200 secondary schools. Only two of these have showers and locker rooms, and they have only cold-water showers. School auditoriums are rarely found.

When the state education departments open a school, it provides only desks, chalk, teachers, and students. Telephones, radio, phonograph and records, piano, physical education and sporting equipment, clocks, duplicating machines, and so on, all taken for granted in the United States, have to be purchased by the teachers or through funds raised by "student union fees." No schools have secretaries or nurses. Consequently teachers are faced with moun-

tains of official documents and reports to be completed. It is not uncommon to find teachers in a country high school operating a tuckshop in their lunch hour in order to raise funds for sporting equipment or money to stage a play! And it should be remembered at all times that a high-school teacher in Australia, though trained, say, in English and history, may well have to teach French, music, physical education, and library, as the present writer did when he was a teacher in Australia.

It is indeed good to find that people in the United States are taking an interest in their own educational system and its shortcomings. But they should be made aware that theirs is not the only imperfect one; that those which many of them would have us copy are decidedly inferior; and that the Australian, like the New Zealand and Canadian high-school systems, is in considerable degree adopting both the philosophy and the organization of the United States high-school system.



The Pattern of Ineffective Teaching

The common root of ineffective teaching may be traced to a distorted self-concept held by the faculty member. When this distortion borders on the pathological no amount of intellectual brilliance will pull the teacher through. In many cases it seems to be an inability of the teacher to relate himself meaningfully to the demands of teaching. The man nearing retirement who is resistant to change and knows dogmatically that he alone can speak for his area has allowed his self-concept to become warped. He is unreasonable and often disagreeable to cover his anxiety toward change. Not always is the old duffer senile; a combination of tenure and bluffing may provide an effective smoke screen.

Another aspect of the distorted self-concept is exhibited by the new teacher recently come from graduate school. Over-strictness, harsh grading, and graduate level teaching are first efforts to cover insecurity. Usually the patient recovers, adapting his

teaching methods to the abilities of his students and reserving his specialization for upperclassmen and research. Unless this balance is achieved, the teacher may retreat into a preoccupation with research or personal hobbies.

A dark horse among the ineffective teachers is the lazy teacher. Few cases of laziness can be attributed to glandular disturbances. Most accept this insulated position because of an unrealistic self-concept. If there is injustice in grading or class procedures, a retreat is made to the security of dictum or lethargy. Over-friendliness with students is a way frequently tried to get students to accept poor teaching without complaint. Except for the minority, students will shrug it off and accept the proposition. The teacher who plays favorites or evidences gross bias seems to do this as means of defending his unrealistic appraisal of himself.—WILLIAM J. McKEEFERY in the *North Central Association Quarterly*.

Sharpening the Measuring Instrument

By CARL H. WEAVER

IT IS NOT EASY to imagine a procedure of classroom teaching that is more important to both teacher and student than the measurement of achievement. Many times during the school year, but especially at the end of six-week grading periods and semesters, students are confronted with examinations, usually of the paper-and-pencil type, which have been designed to measure their knowledge of subject matter. On the basis of marks which they make on examination papers, students are assigned positions on a continuum from the very lowest to the very highest. The teacher assumes that each student is in his proper place (i.e., that the test has adequate validity and reliability) and assigns a mark to him according to this position. This mark is of great importance to both teacher and student in terms of justice, parent-student-teacher relations, and the attitude of the student toward his work. It is desirable that the test should do what the teacher thinks it does.

There are many reasons for administering achievement examinations to students.

Sometimes the instructor needs to discover areas in which more teaching is needed. Sometimes a test is administered in order to increase students' awareness of their own relative ignorance and thus motivate them to exert greater effort. Sometimes tests are administered in order to compare instructors or entire school programs or to identify the best students. Most teacher-constructed examinations are administered, however, for the purpose of assigning grades in the course.

Fundamental to all of these purposes and kinds of tests is the measurement function of the test. Unless the test measures reliably what the instructor thinks it does, its task and purpose will be imperfectly fulfilled. Grades will be unfairly assigned and problem areas erroneously identified. Thus the classroom teacher should be concerned about the construction, evaluation, and protection of the examinations he administers to his students.

An examination which has demonstrated satisfactory reliability and validity should not be handed back to the testees for inspection. The principle often taught in teacher-education classes that tests should also be used for teaching is open to serious question if the use of the test for teaching is likely to destroy its efficiency as a measuring instrument. The teacher will do better to preserve the test and do his teaching in another way. It is difficult to understand how a teacher can hand a test paper back to a student, perhaps allow him to take it home, and ever expect to use that test again. Even handing test papers back to students, reviewing them in class, and collecting them before the end of the hour have resulted in group collaboration in remembering items and later assembling them into reasonable facsimiles of the test. In the

EDITOR'S NOTE

Oh, the ideas in this article are incisive! In his letter accompanying the manuscript, the author wrote that there is "need for better preparation and evaluation of examinations in the classrooms of our public schools." It is a matter of concern that frequently teachers can be unaware of possible inadequacies in preparing examinations and of techniques available for detecting them. The major purpose of the author is to create some awareness in regard to what makes a good test, especially objective tests. He is on the faculty of Central Michigan University at Mount Pleasant, Michigan.

words of a competent test maker, "A good item is hard to come by." It is doubtful whether any advantages gained in teaching can balance the harm done by the loss of a good test.

This problem of protecting the test is difficult to solve. It has resulted in statements by people whose judgment we ordinarily trust that (1) we should use the essay-type test with all its proved unreliability in scoring, and (2) we should use a different test every time we administer an examination. The argument over the merits of the essay *v.* the objective test will not be examined in this discussion, which is limited to the construction and evaluation of the so-called objective test. To anyone even reasonably well acquainted with evaluation of objective tests, however, the second statement (that the teacher should use a different test every time) is utter nonsense. The number of items with adequate discriminating power and with the desired difficulty level which can be made from any given textbook material is strictly limited. A test composed of such items can be developed only after careful construction and adequate item evaluation. Not even the best measurement experts in the business will venture to predict more than roughly how an item will behave when the test is administered. It is foolish for any classroom teacher who is not a specialist in testing to believe that he can do what the experts cannot. To construct a new test every year or every six weeks which can be demonstrated to possess adequate reliability and validity is an impossibility, even if we do not consider the work involved. And the very fact that the test is new suggests that no one knows its reliability and validity as a measuring instrument.

Most of us probably have too much confidence in our own test-making ability. It is difficult to find a teacher who has, or is willing to express, any doubt about the efficacy of his examinations. He is forced by his position and grade-assigning respon-

sibility to play a confident role; any lack of confidence may become a weapon in the hands of a disgruntled student. It is possible that the habitual living of this role begets belief to the point that the teacher will defend his conviction that any test which he uses possesses adequate reliability and validity and thus places each student on the continuum in the exact place which he deserves. The purpose of this discussion is to suggest three fairly easy procedures by means of which a teacher may determine whether any of his tests deserve this kind of confidence and, if not, how he can improve them.

In the first place, a test may lack course or textbook validity. Comparison of the items in a test with an outline of the material covered by the test often reveals that some of the subject matter studied is tested little or not at all and some is tested by a disproportionately large number of items. This results in low validity of the total test and the placement of students on the achievement scale on some basis other than knowledge of the subject matter tested. Thus a student who studied the entire area assigned may do less well on such an examination than another student who did not read part of the material assigned. The teacher may rather easily avoid such an error by creating a test outline before the test is constructed. It is possible, by inspection and evaluation of an outline of the material to be tested (e.g., five chapters in a textbook), to assign to each part of the outline the number of items which its importance demands. If several teachers are involved in the making of the test, their combined judgment will probably insure reasonably good course validity, i.e., the test will "cover" the material that has been taught, properly weighted.

The construction of the items is a creative process and is probably not well done in a discussion group. It is usually better for one of the teachers involved to construct the items and submit them to the

others, who are subject-matter experts, for criticism and suggested changes. The type of item used depends upon many factors with which most teachers are probably familiar. A good discussion of item construction is Ebel's chapter in Lindquist's *Educational Measurement*.

In the second place, the teacher should have some idea of the pattern of difficulty presented by the individual items in the test. Observation of the distribution of scores on the total test will reveal information about the difficulty of the test as a whole but no information at all about the individual items. The items which measure achievement in one area of subject matter may be much more difficult than the items which measure another area. This factor will reduce validity in much the same way that a poor test outline does. In the kind of testing usually done in the classroom, some very difficult and some very easy items should probably be scattered throughout the test outline. The degree of difficulty can be judged easily by writing on the test outline the simple percentage of students who heretofore marked each item correctly. The percentage may or may not be corrected for chance guessing. A discussion of this correction procedure may be found in Davis' chapter in Lindquist's *Educational Measurement*. Whether this percentage figure is corrected for guessing or not, the teacher should understand that it is only a rough estimate of the difficulty of an item. He can make finer discriminations between items by locating the percentage (minus .50) on a table of areas of the normal curve, reading across to the left column, and locating the z score, or position on the base line which includes that percentage. Location of every item in the test on such a base line may reveal to the teacher that the difficulty of the items is not well distributed from easy to difficult. Construction of such a chart for subdivisions of the test may reveal the information mentioned above—that items covering one part of the material

tested are noticeably easier or more difficult than items on other parts of the test. These values for positions on the base line of the normal curve (difficulty indexes in terms of standard deviation units) are additive, whereas simple percentages are not. Thus, an average difficulty index may be computed for the items which cover each chapter in the textbook. Some of the computations may be seen in Columns II, III, and IV of Table I (opposite), which was constructed from the data collected when a thirty-five-item test was administered to seventy-six students.

If the teacher is not statistically inclined or sophisticated, he may want to use the simple percentages. Straightforward inspection of them on the test outline will give him useful information in evaluating his test. He can obtain the data for computing these percentages rather quickly by thumbing through the answer sheets and counting for each individual item the number of correct responses. If several teachers are involved, the work of counting can be shared. It is obvious that inequities thus discovered should be corrected by changing or replacing items.

The third procedure which the teacher can use to evaluate his test is a judgment of the differentiating power of the individual items. In general, good items will be answered correctly more often by "good" students than by "poor" students; i.e., the prime purpose of each item is to aid in separating the good students from the poor students. A collection of items which will do this and which meet the two requirements already discussed ought to rank students with respect to their knowledge of the subject matter studied in the way they deserve to be ranked. The test will probably have satisfactory validity and reliability.

The data required for a judgment of the discriminating power of each item on the test from which Table I was made may be seen in column I. The papers were ar-

TABLE I
ITEM DISCRIMINATION AND DIFFICULTY

Item Number	I		II Total Number Correct	III Per Cent Correct	IV Difficulty Index	V Discrimination Index
	Upper	Lower				
1	17	2	30	39	-.28	(81% ¹⁰ -10% ⁰) .70
2	14	8	36	47	-.07	(67% ³⁸ -38% ⁰) .29
3	20	17	66	87	1.13	(95% ⁸¹ -81% ⁰) .30
4	20	20	73	96	1.75	(95% ⁹⁵ -95% ⁰) .00
5	21	15	66	87	1.13	(100% ⁷¹ -71% ⁰) .60
6	21	19	73	96	1.75	(100% ⁹⁰ -90% ⁰) .40
7	16	3	29	38	-.30	(76% ¹⁴ -14% ⁰) .31
8	19	16	69	91	1.34	(90% ⁷⁶ -76% ⁰) .23
9	16	7	42	55	.12	(76% ³³ -33% ⁰) .44
10	21	20	73	96	1.75	(100% ⁹⁵ -95% ⁰) .27
11	20	11	60	79	.81	(95% ⁵² -52% ⁰) .56
12	18	16	61	80	.84	(86% ⁷⁶ -76% ⁰) .15
13	20	16	66	87	1.13	(95% ⁷⁶ -76% ⁰) .37
14	21	14	66	87	1.13	(100% ⁶⁷ -67% ⁰) .63
15	8	7	26	34	-.41	(38% ³³ -33% ⁰) .05
16	16	8	43	57	.18	(76% ³⁸ -38% ⁰) .39
17	14	4	34	45	-.12	(67% ¹⁹ -19% ⁰) .49
18	17	4	30	39	-.28	(81% ¹⁹ -19% ⁰) .61
19	18	10	48	63	.33	(86% ⁴⁸ -48% ⁰) .43
20	16	13	52	68	.47	(76% ⁶² -62% ⁰) .16
21	19	8	48	63	.33	(90% ³⁸ -38% ⁰) .56
22	19	14	54	71	.55	(90% ⁶⁷ -67% ⁰) .33
23	14	5	24	32	-.47	(67% ²⁴ -24% ⁰) .44
24	21	20	74	97	1.88	(100% ⁹⁵ -95% ⁰) .27
25	15	8	43	57	.18	(71% ³⁸ -38% ⁰) .34
26	19	6	48	63	.33	(90% ²⁹ -29% ⁰) .63
27	13	13	51	67	.44	(62% ⁶² -62% ⁰) .00
28	12	9	42	55	.12	(57% ⁴³ -43% ⁰) .14
29	21	14	65	86	1.08	(100% ⁶⁷ -67% ⁰) .63
30	20	10	59	78	.77	(95% ⁴⁸ -48% ⁰) .59
31	16	8	43	57	.18	(76% ³⁸ -38% ⁰) .39
32	21	9	49	64	.36	(100% ⁴³ -43% ⁰) .75
33	20	9	44	58	.20	(95% ⁴³ -43% ⁰) .62
34	20	17	66	87	1.13	(95% ⁸¹ -81% ⁰) .30
35	13	7	33	43	-.18	(62% ³³ -33% ⁰) .29

ranged in descending order according to total scores on the test. Then 27 per cent of the total number of papers (21 papers) were taken from the top of the pile and called the "upper tail" of the distribution, and 27 per cent taken from the bottom of the pile and called the "lower tail." The number of correct responses for each item was observed in each tail and recorded in column I. It may be observed that almost all of the best students (as measured by the total test) marked item 1 correctly but almost none of the poor students. This suggests that the item has very good power of discrimination. Two items, 4 and 27, have no discriminating power.

Items which are very easy (number 4) and

very hard (number 15) tend to have lower power of discrimination than items which are marked correctly by about 50 per cent of the students taking the test (column III). This does not mean that no hard and no easy items should be included in the test. On the contrary, the range of difficulty should be spread as evenly as possible over a rather wide range, perhaps from 30 to 95 per cent if the percentage is not corrected for guessing.

The inspection of column I will give the teacher enough information for him to change or replace items. The teacher who is interested in more complete information than this may use the more sophisticated technique illustrated in column V. In this

column the numbers in parentheses are the percentages of students in the upper and lower tails who marked each item correctly. For example, 81 per cent of the upper tail (17) and 10 per cent of the lower tail (2) marked item 1 correctly. These percentages may be used to enter tables prepared by Flanagan or Davis to obtain an estimate of the correlation of the item with the test (biserial r). The independent computation of this correlation coefficient is quite laborious. For most tests values of .20 to .40 are indicative of adequate discriminative power. It is obvious that none of these values should be negative and that items which do not discriminate at all should be dropped from the test unless there is some other reason for retaining them.

In summary, it may be said that a classroom achievement test (1) which is constructed according to a carefully made plan, (2) which is composed of items whose difficulty indexes are spread rather evenly over a fairly wide range and conform well to the test plan, and (3) whose items have adequate discriminating power is likely to rank students in their proper order. Since the problem of assigning grades ranks so high in importance throughout our educational system, it seems reasonable to suggest that teachers should evaluate the instruments

they use to measure student achievement.

The matter of sample size is of some concern in test evaluation. One specialist has discovered a reliability coefficient of .60 for the discrimination index if there are 100 cases in each tail of the distribution, which means 370 cases in the total sample. Table I suggests that a great deal of information may be obtained if only 76 student papers are used, and it is likely that the number may be reduced to 50 if the teacher understands that the reliability is thereby lowered. This means that the test evaluation should probably be done each time the test is administered since the students used for any one evaluation may be an atypical group. Regular evaluations should be performed in any circumstance, however, since methods, objectives, and emphases tend to change over a period of time.

A teacher who constructs and evaluates his major examinations even by the simplest methods described here is likely to become more keenly aware of the intricate problems involved in any kind of educational measurement. Consequently, he will probably be less willing than before to place his confidence in a test which has never been evaluated. It is to be hoped that in the long run both teacher and student will profit.



Teaching the Talented

Talented pupils need individual attention from the teacher as much as any pupils do. They must have help to develop a high level of skill in reading, writing, critical thinking, scholarly analysis, and research. They should have practice writing essay examinations and term papers.

The realistic study of contemporary issues is one of the best ways to challenge talented pupils. All social studies teachers, but particularly those who teach the talented, should be able to hold free discussions of controversial questions. Pupils should be encouraged to express their own ideas. If some take

unsound positions, these will be revised with further study and discussion. The great need is to free the gifted from the shackles of a deadly conformity.

Teaching the academically talented is not easy. To do it well takes extra time and energy. The teacher of bright pupils in either a regular or a special class needs in a high degree the qualifications desired in all teachers—scholarly preparation, a keen mind, broad intellectual curiosity, creativeness, energy, enthusiasm, emotional balance, and a deep interest in students.—RUTH WOOD GAVIAN in *Social Education*.

Who Are the Gifted?

What Are They Like?

By

AUDREY RIEGER

WHAT IS A GIFTED CHILD? Is he a strange sort of creature who can be approached only by those with special know-how? Is he to be put on display? Is he an adult in a child's body? Or is he just a youngster who is able to perform unusual feats because of something extra which he received from an exceptionally favorable heredity? This last description is the correct one.

Someone has defined a "gifted child" as one whose accomplishments are consistently remarkable. Using this definition as a start, let us look at gifted children.

The first problem, of course, is to decide who are gifted, in areas other than special

talents such as music and art. Many people believe that they can judge a child's ability by watching him, either in a classroom situation or in other settings. Certainly the child who always has the correct answer, who reaches conclusions sooner than the others in the class, who uses mature concepts well, will stand out and will be noticed as bright. But the child who does not exhibit his knowledge, who tries to be like the rest of the youngsters in his class so that he will be accepted, the shy child, the reserved or quiet youngster may go unnoticed.

Many people who work with children—teachers, psychologists, special therapists, and so on—have attacked the problem of picking out the gifted from the average pupil and have come up with several solutions. Some of these solutions are in use today in school situations which provide special opportunities for the bright child. Others are of value to teachers in helping them to recognize hidden ability in their classes.

The first method is that of measuring intelligence, or determining the I.Q., by means of an individual intelligence test. Setting a boundary line to divide the gifted from those who are "merely" bright is certain to be more or less arbitrary and may be of little significance; therefore no recommendations are in order. The designation of "gifted" should be applied to a child who is outstandingly superior to his agemate; however, if the average I.Q. of the group is 90-95, a child with an I.Q. of 115 is definitely superior but could not be considered gifted (except in this limited

EDITOR'S NOTE

Hardly a school is now complacent about the necessity for giving special attention to its gifted pupils. But not all schools have actually developed a policy for identifying, testing, and teaching the gifted. Some are unclear as to the distinction between the gifted and the academically talented. The reasons for the uneven nationwide attention to the gifted pupil are complex mainly because of the meager resources available in many school districts. Whatever the reason, the time has come to think deeply about the situation and the problem. Consequently, the basic considerations with which this article deals can be helpful in establishing guidelines for positive action in those schools still uncommitted to a policy. The author is on the psychology faculty of Fairleigh Dickinson University, Teaneck campus, New Jersey, and is highly regarded for her competence in the field.

group situation). On the other hand, if in a superior class where the average I.Q. is 120 there is a child with an I.Q. of 140, is he to be considered gifted? Yes, he is; but in such a superior group the question of identification is of less importance than in a group of children with average I.Q.'s where there may be one child with an I.Q. of 140, since he is not so likely to be challenged in his class as is the former child.

Sometimes the boundary between the bright and the gifted is set at an I.Q. of 130. Lewis Terman, whose work has set standards for all others in the field, set his dividing line at I.Q. 140. Shortly after Terman made the original Binet test available in an American standardization in 1917, he became interested in the fast learner and made a study of such youngsters. He picked out about a thousand such children from California schools and followed their careers. His findings are of great significance to anyone who deals with children.

Most noticeable among the children in Terman's gifted group was a strong interest in reading and in discussion. Gifted children, given opportunity to do so, can work independently and quickly. They are avid learners, with a wide range of interests and with strong curiosity. They often come up with remarkable judgments. Vocabulary is superior to that of other children.

In school, they tend to fit into a pattern. Terman found that as a group their best achievements were in reading, followed by arithmetic, language usage, science, and the arts. They did less well in history, civics, and spelling, subjects which are more dependent on rote learning or straight memory than on understanding of basic principles and use of abstractions. Terman also noted that as a group these children were poorest in handwriting. This will strike a familiar note! The reason for it seems to be the fact that handwriting is merely a tool for expressing ideas; these children have little interest in how effectively they use this skill.

Furthermore, gifted children are typically underachievers in school. They may excel in their work, but they do not work at the level of which they are capable.

Techniques other than intelligence tests that are of value in identifying the gifted are: cumulative reading records; awareness of boredom with regular assignments (when it is obvious that such boredom is not a defense for work that is too difficult); alertness (but watch out, since many slow children put on a façade of quickness); initiative, compositions, and other creative achievements; and anecdotal records.

Although the gifted child is different from the others, this difference is largely a matter of degree rather than a basic difference in a quality which he alone possesses.

WHAT IS A GIFTED CHILD LIKE? We know that he is exceptionally quick to learn, that there are certain areas in schoolwork in which he is more superior than in others, and that he is generally outstanding in ability. What is he like—socially, emotionally, and physically? Does he fit the mental image that most people have of the scholar? What about the stereotype of the "egghead" that seems to appall so many of our teenagers today?

We have an answer to these questions in a group of one thousand gifted youngsters studied by Lewis Terman. These children all had I.Q.'s of 140 or higher and were studied for about twenty-five years, well into maturity.

Terman found that the gifted child, far from being puny, stooped, and with a one-track mind, is likely to be better rounded and more efficient physically than the child with average intellectual endowment. The gifted child is likely to be stronger, healthier, and better looking. This does not mean that a beauty queen is therefore exceptionally bright; we all know some who do not fit that standard. Nevertheless, out of a large group of children, the brighter youngster will usually stand out as being more developed and more attractive than the

less endowed. Furthermore, the brighter children are popular, as sociograms show, and are leaders rather than followers. They are the ones who produce the ideas that the group follows, and they are the ones who direct the others in carrying out projects. They stimulate the others in a class—as long as they are not held up to the others as models to be imitated.

In terms of emotional development and emotional needs, these children are no different from any other children. They require the basic comforts of security and being loved as much as—if not more than—any other child. They need to know that they are accepted for what they are, not for what someone can make of them, and they need to know that they are permitted to be different from others—as they must be. They need friends, they need success, and they need to be able to meet and handle frustrations. They also need to learn respect for the rights of others, just as other children do, and they must learn to accept differences among other people, just as much as they need to accept it for themselves.

These emotional needs are probably less often met for the gifted child than for the average. Being so mature intellectually, such a child often gives those who deal with him an impression that they are handling one far older than his years, and they may treat him accordingly. To some extent there is truth to this impression; but a child with an I.Q. of 150, based on a mental age of 15 and a chronological age of 10, will behave more like a ten year old than like a teenager, and a child with an M.A. of 8 and a C.A. of 6 (I.Q. 133) will resemble the average six year old more than he will an eight year old. Nevertheless, these attitudes and expectations of adults often interfere with the child's adjustment. He may try to fulfill these demands, at great expense to his personality development and thus to his future achievement; or he may give up the effort, thereby disappointing the adult and leading to rejection.

Besides facing the usual problems of growing up and learning to take their places as productive members of society, the gifted face other difficulties with children which result from their superior mental endowment. Their interests are like those of older children, who often refuse to associate with them because "they're babies." For example, a second-grade boy who was on a school science program was told by the sixth graders to get off the stage because he didn't belong there. The older boys were not aware of the fact that the younger one, in spite of his age, had a strong interest in and knowledge of cosmic rays and really had something to contribute to the program. Nevertheless, to the sixth graders he was nothing but a nuisance.

In trying to get along with older children, the bright youngster is hampered by his relatively immature physical development. He cannot throw a ball as far or as well as the child with whom he has a community of interests; he cannot run as fast as the child who may have accepted him as a leader in school projects; and he is smaller (because he is younger).

Furthermore, the bright child has problems in communicating with his peers. He tends to think in terms which are beyond the understanding of his age mates. If he talks to them about his academic interests, they are likely to walk away in bewilderment. After a while, they may refuse to have anything to do with him because they literally don't understand him. Sometimes a gifted youngster will deliberately downgrade his thought processes to prevent this rejection by his peers, with subsequent impairment of his freedom of thought and curiosity.

Other problems in social relationships occur. The gifted child is often bored with his companions, often the only companions he can find. Others may be jealous of him or fear him because of his quickness. He may be exploited by others, who promise friendship in exchange for help with home-

work. He is perceptive enough to realize that such offers are made only for the good of the youngster who is proffering the friendship; yet he may be so desperate for companionship that he is willing to make extreme efforts even to buy friendship.

The gifted may face problems even in school. Classes are designed to progress at the pace of the average of the group, and the gifted child must mark time waiting for the others. Is it any wonder that so often these high-spirited, ingenious youngsters get into all sorts of trouble in school? Boredom drives them to do all sorts of things they would never consider doing if they were kept busy. Often the fact that a youngster constantly gets into mischief in class is a tip-off that he is not being challenged.

Many adults, whether they admit it or not, are afraid of such youngsters. If they happen to be the parents of such a child, they may put many obstacles in his way and prevent him from developing his gifts because his achievement may overshadow theirs and make them feel inferior. They

may actually fear this child of theirs who thinks so quickly.

A teacher of a gifted child, rather than being afraid that she may be inadequate because her I.Q. may be less than his or because she may not be able to answer all of his questions, should actually welcome the opportunity to help to guide his development. This child needs to be freed from the conventional rules—although he must at all times respect the rights of others and must know what it means to participate as a member of a group—and he must be given a challenge. He must be stimulated. The teacher's role is not so much that of teaching him but rather that of helping the child to figure out ways to attack and solve his problems. It is a challenge to her, but she should feel free to learn along with the youngster, and he will respect her for her efforts and for her recognition of his and her own limitations. Thus both can grow, and the teacher has the gratification of knowing she has helped another potential leader further along the road toward fulfilling his promise.



The Right to Eat

A right to eat law providing for a 30-minute daily duty-free lunch period for teachers of the state has been enacted in the Massachusetts legislature by an overwhelming majority.

The legislation was successfully enacted with the united and aggressive support of: the Massachusetts Federation of Labor and *Massachusetts Federation of Teachers*.

It provides that the half-hour duty-free period shall be between 10 a.m. and 1 p.m. It went through the senate by a 31 to 3 vote, and previously through the house by a margin described by Sally Parker of Boston, *A.F. of T.* field representative, as overwhelming.

The law is the second of its kind in the United States, the first having been passed in the [1957] Illinois legislature under the leadership of Rep.

Carl Soderstrom of Streator, a son of the president of the Illinois Federation of Labor, as well as other members of the assembly.

Similar bills were introduced in [1957] legislatures in numerous states, and [were] pending [in 1958] in the New York and other off-year assemblies. The Illinois and Massachusetts actions are also expected to give impetus to similar legislation in the majority of states [in 1959] when most sessions are held.

A.F. of T. President Carl J. Megel, in Chicago, called the Massachusetts law a step toward reducing the state's teacher shortage. He added:

"Teachers cannot function properly at the tensions they do, without the interval to lunch and relax at mid-day. Such laws add to teacher efficiency."—*American Teacher*.

Are Our Schools Doing Too Much?

By BERNARD LEIBSON

AT A TIME when we are warned that Johnny can't read, that high-school graduates cannot write effective English, and that it takes an M.I.T. junior to answer questions allegedly answered with ease by Russian high-school students, it may seem paradoxical to ask: Are our schools doing too much?

But if there is a paradox, it is simply that of the law of diminishing returns. Are we doing so much that we accomplish too little? Have we so many objectives that we can achieve none of them? Have we gone off in so many directions that we make little progress? The answers to these questions

are vital if we are to understand and solve our educational problems.

Our tendency to nibble away at teaching time without regard to its effect on our educational program is a problem we must examine. It is one of the curses of our school systems; it is an endless source of irritation to teachers; it weakens our educational program.

It is such a temptation to use the schools for a multitude of "outside" activities. The pupils are captive and so are the teachers. Money is saved when the schools do these things. And what is more convenient, to rationalize it all, than to use the prevailing psychological dictum that the school must teach the "whole child"?

The principle of being interested in the "whole child" is sound psychology. It draws the teacher's attention to the fact that the intellectual aspect of a child's life is only one part of it. The teacher must be concerned also with the child's physical and emotional health; he must not forget the child's aesthetic and ethical development. But this cannot mean that the teacher and the school must be concerned with all these things. It cannot mean that the same teacher, in the same twenty-five hours, must insure the development of all the facets. Parents, religious institutions, health authorities, community leaders must do a portion of this work, and additional hours beyond the school day must be found for it.

Here are some illustrations. *Item:* Teachers must become aware of illness in their children; they must know the children who have ailments that need special consideration or watching (e.g., diabetics, epileptics); but they should not be called upon to measure eyesight, examine for dental cavities, test for hearing disabilities, and enter records of these examinations.

EDITOR'S NOTE

What should our schools accomplish? Should they provide custodial care for children and youth in addition to the purpose for which they were established, that is, to extend knowledge, skills, and understandings by directed concentration? Should they serve as collection agencies, as banking institutions, as welfare departments, or distributors of surplus agricultural products? There are pressures that would have schools overprotect youth. Should youth be required to do for themselves the things they can do without help? What responsibility should parents assume for nurturing their offspring? These are most difficult questions, yet they have to be asked if we are to arrive at some agreement on what priorities of responsibility the school should assume. It isn't a question of willingness. It is a question of time and effort. The author, who is a teacher in the New York City school system, makes a plea for thinking through the conflicts our secondary schools face in attempting to be all things to all pressure groups.

Item: Thrift is an admirable trait. Schools do teach it through story, study of elementary economics, government budgets, personal experience, and through the daily use of classroom supplies. Teachers, however, should not be tellers for the local savings bank. This aspect of the lesson on thrift belongs to the parent. Mother or father can show the child by example and take him to the bank (open one evening a week) to teach him all the steps in the banking process!

Item: Feeding young children midmorning snacks is good nutrition and general lunch programs are necessary where children travel great distances and have both parents working. But it is right to question whether teachers should take class teaching time to collect money for such purposes. In communities where a free lunch program is in operation, a teacher should know which of his children are involved since this gives him insight into their socioeconomic background. But his time and/or teaching time must not be taken to determine a family's eligibility. This is the duty of the local welfare department.

Item: The schools have become a place for innumerable charitable collections and a distribution center for endless items. Red Cross, Christmas seals, Thanksgiving food, UNICEF, community drives, Save the Children Federation, Parent Association collections, district activity collections, get out the vote, fire safe home survey, surplus apple distribution, polio inoculation, etc. etc. Many of these activities stimulate noble responses and help in character development; some are simply part of the movement of shedding home responsibilities. Where schools have not made direct efforts to limit these activities, the time consumed is not inconsiderable. That a succession of these drives can be integrated into true learning situations is more of a dream than a reality. Most teachers must attend to them as added jobs and then "get down to work." Parents and their community organizations

must assume a good deal of this burden if their schools are to accomplish their primary functions.

Item: Released time for religious instruction has strong backing and legal sanction. It is not important here to discuss whether or not the present generation needs more religion, nor is it the place to argue that the schools have always done their share—within the framework of complete separation of church and state—in the development of moral and spiritual values. What we are concerned with here is that though we are finding it more and more difficult to teach all that we must in twenty-five hours a week, we say that it is quite permissible to cut the time by an hour. When religious institutions take children out during the school day, the implication is clear that it is not important to stay in school—that it does not matter if the hour is missed. Even where only a small portion of the student body goes out, the teacher is under obligation not to teach anything new to the remaining pupils—and not all who remain need review or remedial work. In schools where large portions leave, desultory activities are carried on while teachers have conferences of one type or another. Teaching time has thus been reduced and learning suffers.

Are our schools doing too much? They are trying to, and are, consequently, failing to accomplish what they set out to do. They need a clarification of purposes and an organization that will help achieve them. They need to set up a priority of aims and to select those that can conceivably be accomplished in the twenty-five-hour week. To achieve other aims parents, schools, and community agencies must unite to provide additional arrangements, money, and personnel.

But if pupils and teachers are to attain the satisfaction of accomplishment, the hours of school must be inviolate; they must be preserved for directed learning of the achievable curriculum.

LECTURING:

A Wedge Between Theory and Practice

By KENNETH H. HOOVER

EXPERIENCED TEACHERS in the field have reactions toward professional education courses—not unlike beginning students in education. Both groups apparently learn that professors of education “do not practice what they preach.” As a result of this indictment, some professors attempt to determine precisely what these two groups think about the courses they have had or will have. We find that a large number are convinced that “professional education courses are a waste of time,” “that they are dull and repetitious,” and the like. These and other similar comments were made by the majority of 117 summer school teachers enrolled in professional education courses at Arizona State College in 1957.¹ Most were experienced teachers. Not only did they deplore professional education courses, however. Subject matter courses were, to a lesser degree, labeled as “factual only, a mass of meaningless verbalisms,” et cetera.

EDITOR'S NOTE

There is nothing wrong with lecturing, if the teacher or professor uses it quite sparingly and only when it is appropriate to the occasion. But, to lecture all the time, oh! This can be dull and also emphasize regurgitative learning, in which students feed back to the professor only what he has said. Someone has called steady lecturing the “horse’s mouth technique.” We are convinced that listening is an important social skill, but to listen to and take notes on lectures day after day is overdoing the skill. Amen, Dr. Hoover, and bravo! He is assistant professor, Arizona State College, Tempe.

That critics of our schools are numerous, as well as vociferous, is obvious from casual observation. Perhaps a basic element of our “democratic creed” involves the rights of a minority to be heard. When the above criticisms are heard *from within*, however, it would seem to demand renewed attention to prevailing conditions. This gives rise to a number of challenging questions that should be considered by every college professor, especially the professional educator.

Are our colleges adequately preparing young men and women for successful teaching experiences? In simple terms, could a professional education faculty, upon a period of careful observation, see the appropriate application of those learning principles deemed desirable for today’s teachers? Or do too many of our promising teacher candidates actually teach as they were taught—in high school and college? Numerous surveys have indicated that there is, typically, at least a twenty-five-year lag separating the best educational theory and actual classroom practice. If this is true, it brings us to the realization that the education of our youth, in some respects, is twenty-five years behind the times. Such a conclusion seems to be consistent with the New York Board of Regents survey of school leavers.² The “do as I say, not as I

¹Of the more than two-thirds who responded in a stereotyped manner, approximately 70 per cent were critical of professional education courses, while only about 21 per cent were critical of subject matter courses. (See Kenneth H. Hoover, “Stereotyped Reactions of Teachers,” *THE CLEARING HOUSE*, XXXII (December, 1957), 239-41.

²Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939), pp. 252-53.

do" principle of teaching has long been rejected at the verbal level of behavior. Yet, there are parents who still admonish their children not to follow their examples. The results have usually been disappointing, however. The purpose of this paper is to explore why the "do as I say, not as I do" policy is so frequently followed at the college level of teaching. A rationale is also presented to suggest that the typical instructor of professional education courses is likely no better or no worse than his subject matter cousin.

For several decades now it has been an accepted policy throughout the United States for a prospective teacher to have professional preparation in methods and techniques of teaching. A mass of experimental, as well as applied, research indicates that lecturing and re-citing are extremely poor methods of teaching for immature individuals. Because much of the experimentation has been limited to students in the elementary and secondary schools, we seem to have inferred that the findings do not apply to adult groups. On the contrary, there is a great deal of evidence accumulating to suggest that the lecture-recite formula is equally ineffective at all levels, if it can be assumed that the test of an educated person can be measured by his ability to solve everyday problems. Yet, it is presently deemed unimportant for the professor to have training in methods and techniques of teaching as a prerequisite for college teaching. He all too frequently lectures day after day while the students passively take notes. All too often perhaps the "gems of wisdom" pass from his notes to those of his students without passing through the minds of either. The students "cram" for his examinations and then proceed to forget most of the verbalisms "learned."²

There is one serious question which remains unanswered, however. Why does the teacher of professional education courses

frequently bear the brunt of criticisms, from within as well as from without the profession? He, unlike most other college instructors, has been exposed to a number of classes involving theory and techniques of teaching. Furthermore, in most institutions a record of successful teaching experience in the schools is required. Unfortunately, however, his teaching may be little better than his subject matter counterpart who has not often had the benefit of such experiences. Indeed, the effect of his teaching upon students may be of much poorer quality than that of the subject matter specialist. Why is this so?

The education professor, too, seems to have "unconsciously" assumed that lecturing is the preferred teaching method for adult level instruction. But, unlike the instructor in other areas, he may find himself *lecturing on the reasons for not lecturing*. He may proceed to encourage students to go beyond the "facts" in teaching while testing for facts himself. It is indeed a "weak" student who is unable to recognize such an obvious contradiction. (The professor often excuses himself by saying that his "admonitions" do not apply to college level of instruction.) Furthermore, the education professor has a somewhat less delineated body of subject matter than do those in other departments. Accordingly, there can be, and if criticisms are correct there frequently is, a great deal of needless repetition. At this point, the poor student is ready to "throw in the towel." He is certain that the education professor is setting a horrible example, as is most certainly the case in such instances. The subject matter professor would seem to be just as vulnerable, however, if we can assume that ignorance is no excuse. To him, the "facts" are of the utmost importance. He may never question his own methods of instruction.

Finally our student has "weathered" the last night of "cramming in the facts." He is so thoroughly disgusted that he is determined to forget them, and this he fre-

²Lee J. Cronbach, *Educational Psychology* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1954), p. 391.

quently does, in short order. Within a few months, however, his "learning" is taking effect. He has learned, by example, to lecture and re-cite, and this is what he does. His school principal, thereupon, may identify the "poor" product with the local college of education. Why? Simply because this is the place where the prospective teacher was supposed to have learned not to teach by telling. This is indeed true, but what the principal (or any critic) fails to realize is that the other instructors are also accessories before, as well as after, the fact.

It seems obvious to the writer that our institutions of higher learning may be doing a great disservice to American education by continuing to emphasize the lecture and recitation methods of teaching—by their own examples. Our solution would seem to rest upon the professional educator, however. His background in methods has prepared him to break the yoke of tradition and set the example so important for prospective teachers. This, in turn, might set up a chain of events which would eventually bring about an emphasis upon teaching methods in all departments of instruction.

In order to do this, however, he must begin to question the value of verbal instruction. As "the proof of the pudding is in the eating," one can no longer justify his actions with additional verbal rationalizations. If the new teacher who is faced with the reality of school problems believes his

preparation to be somewhat inadequate, it very likely *is* inadequate.

Briefly, the writer has called attention to the following points:

1. Telling, as a method of instruction at the college level, needs to be re-examined. This calls immediate attention to the works of Ebbinghaus,⁴ who found only 19.6 per cent retention of factually learned material after a three months' period. The educator, then, is probably not justified in stressing factual information. He should, however, be concerned with a methodology which has been demonstrated to be psychologically sound in inducing change of behavior (learning), i.e., learning by experiencing.

2. "Knowing" that better techniques of teaching are valid for elementary and secondary schools is too often "verbal knowing." Influenced as he is by tradition—just like other teachers—the professional educator unconsciously uses practices contradicted by empirical findings, against which he often rails when he sees them in others. He often seems completely oblivious to the fact that others tend to judge him not by what he says but by what he does. Continuous criticisms would seem to demand that the professional educator assume leadership in breaking a "vicious circle" of traditional practices which is apparently based upon a set of false assumptions.

⁴ James B. Stroud, *Psychology in Education* (New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1946), pp. 501-54.



The only jurisdiction a teacher should have over her economic fate is to convince the public she is worth more by increasing the quality of her service. But what constitutes quality has never been defined by either the profession or the public to anyone's satisfaction.—DONALD R. THOMAS in *Teachers College Record*.

Book Reviews

FORREST A. IRWIN, *Book Review Editor*

Brain Washing in the High Schools by E. MERRILL ROOT. New York: Devin-Adair Co., 1958. 277 pages, \$4.50.

The author of this volume is sorely distressed about the status of the teaching of the history of the United States in our high schools. He makes a strong claim that eleven textbooks, used in the Evanston Township High School and elsewhere, have contributed substantially to the low estimate that students have of their own country. He insists that the United States is losing the cold war and that American prisoners of war in Korea folded because they had no deep appreciation for the rich heritage of their country. By strong implication he points the accusing finger at the authors of these eleven textbooks for this sad state of affairs. At no point does he make it clear that those who cracked up studied these textbooks or that they studied the history of their country at all. One is left to draw the dubious inference, however, that these "evil" writers are responsible for the Korean debacle.

Mr. Root, by direct statements as well as innuendoes, seeks to impugn the character and intellectual integrity of all the authors of the textbooks he freely indicts. In some instances the strictures are sweeping. He claims, for example, that "Professor Merle Curti, coauthor of *America's History*, upholds the panacea of socialism in all he writes." (p. 21). Readers of Professor Curti's *America's Peace Crusade*, *The Growth of American Thought*, *Social Ideas of American Educators*, *Roots of American Loyalty*, *Prelude to Point Four*, and *Bryan and World Peace* will recognize Mr. Root's claim as patently absurd. His distress over the alleged "devaluation" of the "conservative" George Washington and the alleged "inflation" of the "liberal" Thomas Jefferson is based on the fantastic observation that the eleven textbooks give a grand total of 155 lines to Jefferson while giving a mere 109 lines to the father of the country. (p. 91). No recognition is made of the fact that Jefferson spanned a much longer period of prominence, was active in many more fields of endeavor, and was much more articulate than Washington. Even so, Root would have us believe that American children are taught to hate their country and that they break down in Korea because Jefferson gets forty-six lines more than Washington in eleven history textbooks.

Mr. Root seeks to establish as fact that the authors of the textbooks are hostile to American business and are especially friendly to all the enemies of business, but an examination of his argument reveals little more than the penchant of the textbook authors for the materials of history, in war and in peace, that dramatize many of the crucial events and developments in the history of the United States. The author's claim that in one of the texts "the U.S. is played down, the U.N. is invariably played up" (p. 160) is nothing more than an expression of his strong opposition to the internationalism that caused this country to move against Nazi Germany and North Korea and to take a leading role in the establishment of the United Nations. Mr. Root goes so far as to object to any description of the United States as a democracy (because the Communists use the term) or to a discussion of the United States following "The Path of Empire" despite the fact that Americans themselves described themselves in such terms long before the Communists used these terms. This would, therefore, seem to be an unrealistic and ridiculous surrender on Mr. Root's part to his real and fancied enemies.

This book would not deserve this attention were it not for the fact that it has many of the earmarks of the brainwashing characteristics it decries. It is excessive in its exaggerations, unfair in its inferences, and hysterical in its interpretations. It has already brainwashed some uncritical citizens into thinking and acting precipitately about United States history in our schools. It has never examined the matter of the way in which these textbooks are used by teachers in our schools. It is content to raise questions, make accusations that imply subversion, and view with alarm the status of the teaching of history that it never examines thoroughly or definitively. If anyone reads this book he should be aware of its identification with the kind of intellectual irresponsibility that the author claims to deprecate.

JOHN HOPE FRANKLIN

Introduction to Exceptional Children (3d ed.) by HARRY J. BAKER. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1959. 523 pages, \$6.50.

Earlier editions of this book appeared in 1944 and in 1953. In this, the third revision, Dr.

Baker has done a thorough job of bringing his text abreast of new ideas and techniques in the education of children who are "exceptional" because of special abilities or disabilities.

After an initial statement about the goals of special education for exceptional children, and after a look at ways in which such children are identified, Dr. Baker explores the following topics: disorders of mental health and deviant behavior; neurological and mental disorders and diseases; deviations in abilities and aptitudes; deviations in education achievement; sensory disorders and defects; and physical disorders and defects. The book concludes with a section on the topic of social and community responsibility toward exceptional children.

This book is useful not only for prospective special education and general classroom teachers but also for practicing teachers, administrators, and other school personnel. Knowledge of the author's views will help teachers and other interested professionals more effectively to integrate children having physical as well as mental problems into the regular school program. In many school systems today, at both junior- and senior-high levels, general classroom teachers instruct children who, for one reason or another, are exceptional.

LOUIS J. CANTONI

Science You Can Use by GEORGE K. STONE and LUCY W. STEPHENSON. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. 383 pages, \$4.40.

Science You Can Use is a unique book with a number of special features which should be helpful to teachers of elementary school science. Among the features the reader will find especially well done illustrations, more than 1,200—all originals and in color. By integrating the illustration with the text, the writers have brought sharply into focus some exercises that pupils should be able to perform with little or no assistance. No major reading difficulty is anticipated with the rather short sentences and paragraphs which convey meaning adequately without appearing choppy.

In addition to the science demonstrations normally found in "how-to-do-it" books the reader will be pleased to find an extensive glossary, book lists, and tests which accompany the units, as well as a 100-item final test in each of the ten parts. In making the claim that "every page of the book has instructional possibilities," the authors have good reason for feeling that the teacher will be able to make maximum use of the material presented.

The scope of this book is such that teachers working at varying grade levels in the elementary school and with different ability groups will find explicit direction and suggestions.

WOODROW W. WYATT

The American Secondary School in Action by PHILIP W. PERDEW. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959. 351 pages, \$5.50.

Choice from the many titles in secondary-school teaching is most difficult. Only a few possess unique qualities. Perdeu's book is a different one: it is more succinct than most; it is geared to students observing schools in action, though others can use it; its organization differs from the usual; it is written very well indeed.

The book begins with the adolescent, continues with excellent chapters on the detailed work of the teacher, and ends with foundations of secondary education. Well over half the book is devoted to the job of the teacher; foundations come last, probably where they belong in undergraduate learning.

Presenting such a coverage well in less than 350 pages is no mean achievement. Probably the chief reasons for Perdeu's success are consistently clear writing; incidents and little "cases," often in students' words; careful selection of what to include and what to omit. There is plenty for basic treatment of all the major topics of a course in secondary-school teaching, and students will find firm bases on which to do collateral reading in depth.

Especially good are the treatments of guidance, appraising pupil progress, planning instruction, and reading and study. The suggested activities at the ends of chapters are practical and contribute substantially to reaching the objectives of the chapters.

The book will not dictate the instructor's course. Instead, it is a first-rate guide for students, on which the instructor can base whatever kind of course his teachers-in-process need.

ROBERT C. HAMMOCK

Measurement for Guidance by JOHN W. M. ROTHNEY, PAUL J. DANIELSON, and ROBERT A. HEIMANN. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959. 378 pages, \$5.00.

This is a well-written book in which the authors take a realistic look at the use of standardized tests as aids to the counseling of students. A great deal of emphasis is laid on the essential nature of counseling: that it is an individualistic process in which the counselor must consider the personality traits and the abilities and potentials of the counselee as separated out of any group.

The difficulties encountered in predicting human behavior are indicated in many illustrations. It is pointed out that these judgments are made even more subject to error when based on scores derived from the imperfect tests employed.

A large part of the book is devoted to a discussion of criteria for the selection of tests. An entire chapter is given over to the use of standards in test selection. An urgent plea is made for the further development and wider use of these standards by publishers and test authors.

The authors explain in some detail the interpretation of test scores, but largely avoid the statistical approach, in accordance with their theory that group statistics may be misleading in dealing with the individual. They urge that the counselor combine test data with all other information available concerning the student in his counseling sessions.

The final chapter, entitled "The Future," reveals a somewhat pessimistic view of past developments in the use of tests in guidance, but suggests some promising remedies.

EARL FOREMAN

Our American Economy by RICHARD W. LINDHOLM and PAUL DRISCOLL. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1959. 499 pages, \$4.36.

The Great Depression of the 1930's convinced most Americans that the federal government should play a more active role in the economy. All voters are now called upon to elect representatives capable of dealing with economic problems; but to make wise selections they must first understand the issues themselves. This calls for a change of emphasis in our schools. More attention must be given to the study of economics; but one of the great handicaps has been the lack of suitable materials for classroom use. *Our American Economy* goes a long way in meeting this need at the secondary level.

The text begins with a look at the economy through the eyes of a young person visiting a supermarket. From this introduction the student is led into the first unit which provides an overall view of the economy. The unit starts with a chapter on the characteristics of the American economic system. Freedom, as a major characteristic, is emphasized.

Chapter 2 introduces the basic concepts of land, labor, capital, and business management and shows how these factors, when combined, produce our Gross National Product. The authors have included a carefully worked out chart showing the flow of goods and services, and money, in the economy.

Unit 2 deals with the economy of the American family. This unit places the family in the perspective of the over-all economy. Advice on budgeting, buying, borrowing, savings, and investment is included. The authors, however, have not neglected to point out how consumer choices influence the national economic picture.

Forms of business—partnerships, corporations, decision-making in business, the advantages and disadvantages of large-scale production, and the problems of monopoly—are considered in unit 3. The role of labor in the economy is presented in unit 4. The unit details the make-up of the American labor force—age groups, skills, and education. Career information is provided to guide young people in judging the future outlook of various occupations. An informative chart places in juxtaposition the aims of management and labor.

Taxation, the federal debt, and the impact of the government's policies on the economy are considered in the unit on the role of government.

The last unit in the book challenges the student to draw upon his newly gained background to think constructively about such problems as the business cycle, our trade relations with other nations, and the farmer in the economy.

Students should face no reading difficulty in this text as the vocabulary has been controlled and new terms are adequately introduced. The text is well equipped with pictures, charts, and graphs which effectively illustrate the basic concepts. Special "features" highlight such topics as "What Are Institutions?" "A Small Business Grows"—the Story of Pepperidge Farms, Inc., and "Inside an Advertising Agency."

Students should find the study of this text an exciting experience and one that will build competence for dealing with both personal and public economic problems.

PHILMORE B. WASS

America Today—"Life in Literature Series" by CHARLES H. CARVER, HAROLD G. SLIKER, and MORRIS H. BALL. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. 544 pages, \$4.80.

America Today is more than the title implies, for this anthology includes works from the past—Emerson and Longfellow, for instance. It fills the bill in the "Life in Literature" series, covering in its various selections just about every phase of daily American living, both general and immediate. The book is particularly suited to serve as a reader in the eleventh grade,

when, as the preface points out, many high schools study American history and government.

Those who are concerned about the preservation of American standards and ideals will be pleased with the material and approach in *America Today*. Powerful writing such as "An Almanac of Liberty," by Reginald Rose, and "My Dog Is Avenged," by Jacob Riis, sounds the old American battle cry for human rights. Students who read these well-selected pieces of literature should acquire a better understanding of the principles for which America has stood and which are in the middle of today's world conflict.

The selections in this reader are grouped under such headings as "Ideals," "Faith," "Laughter," each grouping being introduced by a brief, clear statement of what is involved. There is also a short paragraph preceding each selection to prepare the reader for its contents. These prefatory statements are skillfully done, for they succeed in arousing interest even while they point out what to look for in the reading. After each selection are a few well thought out questions—only three or four—that cover the important matters to be noticed. Because the list of questions is not long and forbidding, I am sure that the student will take them in and test himself by them even without urging. I found myself going through these questions after each reading and discovered that in their brief number they encompassed in breadth and depth what I should have expected myself or students to extract from that selection.

For a high-school English course integrated with American history, American civilization, or the like, I recommend this anthology.

FRANK W. GRUBE

The Structure of Arithmetic and Algebra
by MAY HICKEY MARIA. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958. 294 pages, \$5.90.

The author states that this book is "designed for the reader with a limited background in science and who wishes to understand the fundamental concepts that underlie the structure of algebra and arithmetic. It adopts a simple approach to the general methods of modern mathematics and at a leisurely pace explores and develops the main properties of real numbers as logical consequences of a system of fundamental assumptions."

Some essential features of the text appear to be: (1) the abstract viewpoint it adopts at the outset toward the totality of real numbers as logical entities; (2) the extensive set of axioms

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it selects for characterizing the real numbers; (3) the unsophisticated method of proof it uses throughout, which is appropriate to the subject matter and to the maturity of the beginning student; and (4) the completeness of development it obtains of the properties of real numbers at the elementary level.

Some other characteristics of the book that appealed to this reviewer are: (1) the axiomatic approach, beginning with the study of the axiom that describes the arithmetic operations; (2) the consistent procedure in constructing proofs; (3) the use of an alphabetical code of references, based on abbreviations of descriptive names given to the axioms, definitions, and theorems; (4) the frequent exercises that have been inserted to help the student fix or clarify a newly introduced idea or for the purpose of organized review; and (5) the simplicity and clarity of exposition.

The style of the book is fascinating and stimulating. The first few chapters are written primarily for the beginning student of mathematics but the author has included enough content in this book to make it a worth-while study for advanced students also.

WERNER E. BRAND

Who's Who Among Our Reviewers

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Send for our free folder**Books Received**

- Applied Drawing and Design* (4th ed.) by EVERETT SCROGIN and WILLIAM BETTENCOURT. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight Publishing Co., 1959. 254 pages, \$4.60.
- Developmental Psychology* (3d ed.) by FLORENCE L. GOODENOUGH and LEONA E. TYLER. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959. 552 pages, \$6.00.
- England in Literature* (rev. ed., Grade 12, America Reads Series) by ROBERT C. POOLEY et al. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1957. 752 pages, \$4.52. Guidebook supplied without charge. Testbook, 72 cents.
- Exploring Life through Literature* (rev. ed., Grade 10, America Reads Series) by ROBERT C. POOLEY et al. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1957. 656 pages, \$4.16. Guidebook supplied without charge. Test Booklet, 48 cents.
- 56 Graded Problems in Elementary Sheet Metalwork* by ALGOT ANDERSON. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight Publishing Co., 1959. 143 pages, \$3.80.
- Good Times Through Literature* (rev. ed., Grade 9, America Reads Series) by ROBERT C. POOLEY et al. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1957. 592 pages, \$3.96. Guidebook supplied without charge. Test Booklet, 48 cents.
- The Hand Decoration of Fabrics* by FRANCIS J. KAFKA. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight Publishing Co., 1959. 198 pages, \$5.00.
- The Home Throughout Time* by EDWARD T. MICHAELS and RAYMOND S. NEWMAN. Philadelphia 31: Franklin Publishing and Supply Co., 1959. 108 pages, \$2.08.
- Landmarks of Tomorrow* by PETER F. DRUCKER. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959. 270 pages, \$3.75.
- The Nature of Being Human* edited by MARIE I. RASEY. Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1959. 115 pages, \$3.95.
- The United States in Literature* (rev. ed., Grade 11, America Reads Series) by ROBERT C. POOLEY et al. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1957. 736 pages, \$4.40. Guidebook supplied without charge. Testbook, 72 cents.

Paperbounds Received

- From the NEW AMERICAN LIBRARY OF WORLD LITERATURE, INC., 501 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y.:
- Mainsprings of Civilization* by ELLSWORTH HUNTINGTON, 1959. 669 pages, 75 cents.
- The Statesman* by HENRY TAYLOR, 1958. 159 pages, 50 cents.
- Stories from Shakespeare* retold by MARCHETTE CHUTE, 1959. 320 pages, 75 cents.
- From BANTAM BOOKS, INC., 25 West 45th St., New York 36, N.Y.:
- Barchester Towers* by ANTHONY TROLLOPE, 1959. 440 pages, 50 cents.
- Cannery Row* by JOHN STEINBECK, 1959. 123 pages, 35 cents.
- Cyrano de Bergerac* by EDMOND ROSTAND, 1959. 196 pages, 35 cents.
- Eugénie Grandet* by HONORÉ DE BALZAC, 1959. 175 pages, 35 cents.
- Herman Melville: Four Short Novels* (*Bartleby; The Encantadas, or Enchanted Isles; Benito Cereno; Billy Budd, Foretopman*), 1959. 281 pages, 50 cents.
- Only Yesterday* by FREDERICK LEWIS ALLEN, 1959. 270 pages, 50 cents.
- Two Years Before the Mast* by RICHARD HENRY DANA, 1959. 334 pages, 50 cents.
- From DELL PUBLISHING CO., INC., 750 Third Ave., New York 17, N.Y.:
- Crime and Punishment* by FYODOR DOSTOYEVSKY, 1959. 576 pages, 75 cents.
- Great Stories by Chekhov* edited by DAVID H. GREENE, 1959. 256 pages, 50 cents.
- Jude the Obscure* by THOMAS HARDY, 1959. 416 pages, 75 cents.
- Julius Caesar* by WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, 1959. 188 pages, 35 cents.
- Madame Bovary* by GUSTAVE FLAUBERT, 1959. 383 pages, 50 cents.
- The Merchant of Venice* by WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, 1958. 188 pages, 35 cents.
- Moby Dick* by HERMAN MELVILLE, 1959. 608 pages, 75 cents.
- Six Centuries of Great Poetry* edited by ROBERT PENN WARREN and ALBERT ERSKINE, 1959. 544 pages, 75 cents.
- Three Plays by Ibsen* (*Hedda Gabler, A Doll's House, The Wild Duck*), 1959. 317 pages, 50 cents.
- The Wings of the Dove* by HENRY JAMES, 1958. 512 pages, 50 cents.
- Wordsworth* (Laurel Poetry Series) edited by RICHARD WILBUR, 1959. 160 pages, 35 cents.

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Associate Editor: HENRY B. MALONEY

SCREENING

Study Guide:

The Diary of Anne Frank

(The following study guide is condensed from an article released by Educational Consultants on Entertainment Films, Floride Moore, presiding editor.)

The Nazis' swift, brutal conquest of the Low Countries in May, 1940, recalls ugly memories for teachers, whereas for students it is merely recent history. In Holland, as in other conquered countries, Hitler's legions imposed the Nazi brand of totalitarianism, complete with its doctrines of racial superiority and its policy of persecuting the Jews.

The Diary of Anne Frank is the true account of how eight of these Jews hid out over a spice factory for two years before they were finally captured. But the *Diary* is more than just a true story. Told through the eyes of a young girl, it provides an intimate and searching look at the Franks and Van Daans in their crowded Amsterdam hiding place.

At thirteen, Anne typifies the actions of an adolescent girl. She confides in her father, rejects her mother, squabbles with her sister, and feels unable to please her family. Later she grows into more mature attitudes and develops affection for the Van Daan boy, Peter.

In addition to seeing a young girl's transition from childhood to adulthood, the viewer will be able to observe the group stresses that develop between adults and adolescents. Throughout, however, selfish qualities are offset by ennobling virtues needed to face the constant crises.

Although one cannot study intrafamily relationships satisfactorily because the two families are constantly together, one can watch the roles played by the Franks and Van Daans. Mr. Frank is the kindly, thoughtful, loving, authoritarian father; Mrs. Frank is the housekeeper, nurse, home manager, cook, and dutiful mother. Anne's sister is very introspective and almost totally dependent on her mother. Both of the elder Van Daans show evidences of immaturity.

Director George Stevens has brought a feeling of confinement to the viewer by restricting the range of his cameras. He has added to the intimacy by careful attention to details. An imaginative use of silence and sound adds tension to the drama.

Despite the tragedy of the situation, there are moments of lightness when Anne's irrepressible high spirits take over, and moments of tenderness as her feelings of first love manifest themselves.

Here is a film with unlimited sources for any study of the motion picture, from its masterly use of film techniques to its inspiring telling of human courage and survival.

STUDY QUESTIONS

- (1) How is the influence of a totalitarian state exemplified in this film?
- (2) What are some of the characteristics of prejudice which give rise to persecution?
- (3) What is the rationale of all dictators? What are the fallacies?
- (4) What "thirteen-year-old" characteristics did you observe in Anne?
- (5) What "fifteen-year-old" characteristics did Anne later develop?
- (6) How did Anne's relationship with her father change? Why? When?
- (7) What sequences developed your understanding of Mr. Frank as a husband? Mrs. Frank as a wife?
- (8) How did Anne's relationship with her sister change? Why?
- (9) How did Anne's relationship with Peter change? Why?
- (10) In what ways did Mrs. Frank show an understanding of adolescence? In what ways did she show a lack of understanding of adolescence?
- (11) What sequences developed your understanding of Mr. Van Daan as a husband? Mrs. Van Daan as a wife?
- (12) In what ways was the relationship of the Van Daan parents different from the relationship of the Frank parents?
- (13) Did the Van Daans understand Peter? Did Peter understand them?
- (14) In what ways does Anne reveal her insight into and understanding of her parents? Peter? Herself?

(15) In what ways do all children's relationships with adults change as they grow from adolescence into adulthood?

(16) Was Anne too idealistic for a girl of her age?

(17) Why did Anne feel she must confide only in her diary?

POEMS FOR TEACHING

LOVELIEST OF TREES

By A. E. HOUSMAN

Loveliest of trees, the cherry now
Is hung with bloom along the bough,
And stands about the woodland ride
Wearing white for Eastertide.

Now, of my threescore years and ten,
Twenty will not come again,
And take from seventy springs a score,
It only leaves me fifty more.

And since to look at things in bloom
Fifty springs are little room,
About the woodlands I will go
To see the cherry hung with snow.

This poem, No. II in the series *A Shropshire Lad*, was published in 1895. Housman for years prohibited the use of these poems in anthologies, but since that ban has been lifted, "Loveliest of Trees" has been one of the most frequently selected by general anthologists and by textbook compilers of poetry. This is evidence that it has appealed both to people who ought to be good judges and to the general poetry reading public, if there is such a thing. It is, in short, a popular poem, and it has survived the test of time. But we all know that popularity, and even survival, do not guarantee excellence. Joyce Kilmer's "Trees" and Henley's "Invictus" have plenty of survival value, and they are more popular than Housman's lyric, and both have been contemptuously treated by critics.

"Loveliest of Trees" has the unusual distinction, I think, of being both popular and good.

The usual opening comment on this poem in a textbook has to do with the poem's simplicity, and the reason for this is immediately clear when we make a prose summary or paraphrase, such as the following:

Now at Eastertime, the cherry, which is the most beautiful of trees, is blossoming. I am twenty years old. The Biblical span is seventy;

only fifty springs are left for me. Therefore, I had better get out into the wood and look at the cherry blossoms. (Or, as a fancier paraphraser puts the last section: "Having had this sobering thought [that fifty springs are little room] he sensibly decides that he will forthwith visit the blossom-filled woodland.")

Now, my prose summary, I believe, gives all the data that are in the twelve lines of the poem, but it is, by the nature of things, or more accurately, by the nature of the difference between poetry and prose, thoroughly unsatisfactory. It would not get two minutes of attention, and as I have said, the poem has had a lot of attention. A multitude of things has been lost in the translation from verse to prose.

Clearly, of course, the formal and precise verse pattern (the short lines of seven or eight syllables, rhyming aabb) is gone, and that is a loss the effect of which can never be precisely measured, but it is a great one. The very neatness and exactness of Housman's versification are part of his appeal. There is never anything blurred or loose in his prosody, and there is a popular prejudice in favor of the clean cut. It makes him generally epigrammatic, pithy, striking, and memorable. It may not seem like a compliment, but Housman is easy to memorize.

However, while it is conventional to say that Housman is pithy, economical, "tight"—not wasteful—his simplicity can be overstated. This particular poem is only twelve lines in length, but it has about forty more words than my paraphrase. The second stanza, in fact, conveys quite elaborately a simple piece of information. It is almost perversely ingenious in conveying it, and this has special consequences. The second stanza is the important stanza in establishing the *tone* (roughly defined as "attitude toward the subject"), and it is tone that finally gives a lyric impact. The first and third stanzas can very nearly stand alone and make sense, but they are almost toneless without the middle lines. They are very close to being what is sometimes called "poetry of statement." They communicate very little feeling and are so restrained as to be rather flat. But that clever piece of versified arithmetic in stanza 2 is intensely personal and revealing. It complements stanzas 1 and 3 so that they become rich.

If a young man of twenty represented to us in a directly lugubrious way that he was depressed by the thought that he had only fifty more years to enjoy the loveliness of spring, we would probably think him unpleasantly morbid, or a downright ass. Now, Housman did have this acute sense of urgency, and he

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had this consummate appreciation of the countryside and the signs of spring. Fortunately, he also had a poetic tact that led him into the right way of expressing both things. By this whimsical and complicated calculation in verse (stanza 2) about his life expectancy, surrounded by the other matter-of-fact stanzas, he managed to communicate his feelings so that we accept them, believe in them, and share them.

I have heard and seen a number of scoffing comments about the old-fashioned question, "Do you feel the poet to be sincere?" It may not be well phrased, but it is entirely proper, and finally basic. If a lyric seems arty or false in sentiment, it has failed. There can be no doubt about the answer to this "foolish" question in regard to "Loveliest of Trees."

STUDY QUESTIONS

One gets interesting results in the classroom by asking the students to read the poem through once or twice and then (before discussion) to jot down rapidly short answers to a few questions like the following:

- How old is the poet or "speaker" in the poem? (You get astonishing answers to this.)
- Is it normal for a man of his age to be thinking this way? Do you feel this way?
- The poet is obviously inaccurate about nature—where would cherries bloom at Easter-time? Or is he from the South?
- Is it possible in stanza 3 that snow is not a metaphor, that there is actual snow on the branches of the trees, and in his imagination it looks like white cherry blossoms?
- How would you state briefly the main theme? (Life is short, or, spring is lovely, or both, plus something more?)

The poem is reprinted in the following paperbacks: *The Pocket Book of Verse; Immortal Poems of the English Language*, ed. Williams (Pocket Books); *Golden Treasury of the Best Songs and Lyrical Poems*, ed. Williams (Mentor); *Six Centuries of Great Poetry* (Dell).

WILLIAM ROSS CLARK
University of Connecticut

PRINTED PERSPECTIVES

Nobody Here but Us Plain Folks

The Huckster's Revenge by FRED MANCHEE.
New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1959.
308 pages, \$3.95.

The author, a retired vice-president of B.B.D. & O., attempts in this labor of love to tell "The Truth about Life on Madison Avenue." But in trying to destroy the popular image of the adman as a Martini-guzzling fast talker best at the game of musical beds, he generates an atmosphere of painfully wholesome folksiness. It is no more reassuring to me to have good-natured practical jokers in charge of the \$10,000,000,000+ persuasion business than to have unprincipled cocktail party-liners. What would be reassuring would be to see men in charge of advertising who not only have a complex awareness of what is strong and what is weak in American values but a willingness to admit in public things that could lose them lucrative accounts: as, for example, that the hold that the soap and cigarette businesses have on the American communications system is all out of proportion to their real contribution to the Gross National Product, material or cultural. And I want to see admen in charge who are willing to admit that some ads appeal to lower and others to higher human values and that the future growth of American civilization depends on advertising's gradual disengagement from the former and a systematic pursuit of the latter lyric kind.

So if you want to find out more than that admen are really just plain folks, look in Martin Mayer's *Madison Avenue, U.S.A.* (Harper) or Otis Pease's *The Responsibilities of American Advertising* (Yale) or Shepherd Mead's first-rate novel, *The Admen* (Simon and Schuster). There are some useful facts in Manchec's book but mainly it's an Operation Nostalgia. Less than 15 per cent of the over 600 agencies in New York have offices on Madison Avenue. The Federal Trade Commission examines more than 600,000 ads in papers, magazines, catalogues, and broadcasting each year yet finds only three out of 10,000 objectionable; one out of 10,000 false. Only 4 per cent of a group of advertising leaders suffer from ulcers! The most useful chapter is the last, "Advertising's Plight—And What to Do About It," both for its summary of opinion about ads and Manchec's suggestions for improvement.

PATRICK D. HAZARD

➤ *Audio-Visual News* ➤

By EVERETT B. LARE

1959 American Film Festival Blue Ribbon Award Winners

FILMS*

1. *Agriculture, Conservation, and Natural Resources*

WATERSHED WILDFIRE: 21 mins., color, free loan, United States Department of Agriculture. The Santa Inez Watershed in California was severely damaged by wildfire which raced up its steep brush-covered canyons. United States Marines and Indian forest fire fighters joined local, state, and Forest Service crews in suppressing the fire. Importance of re-seeding such areas and of everyone's help in fire prevention, detection, and control is emphasized.

2. *Citizenship and Government*

CHARTING A COURSE: 14 mins., black and white, Charles Guggenheim and Associates for Citizen's Charter Committee of St. Louis. A film designed for the voter with regard to a charter for a city.

3. *Economics*

BEYOND THE VALLEY: 28 mins., color, free loan, Eso Standard Oil Co. How people benefit from increased opportunities in a country changing from an overpopulated agrarian society to a multi-industry economy. Filmed in Puerto Rico, with authentic folk music.

4. *Education and Child Development*

CLASS OF '58: 60 mins., black and white, free loan, Association Films. A visit to Warren Harding High School in Bridgeport, Conn. From interviews with the principal, some teachers, and three typical students, the audience learns why we are losing two-thirds of our top potential brain power at the high-school level; why only one third of qualified students go to college.

5. *Geography and Travel—North and South America*

VALLEY OF LIGHT: YOSEMITE: 20 mins., color, free loan, Ford Motor Co. A camera trip through Yosemite National Park in

California. Shows the valley floor, the many waterfalls of the Merced River, and the "high country" reached by hikers and pack trips.

6. *Geography and Travel: Europe, Asia, and Africa*

JAPAN: 27 mins., color (\$250), International Film Foundation. Stresses the social and economic problems facing the Japanese people today. Changing social pattern, limited amount of arable land, and necessity for building up manufacturing and foreign trade are considered.

7. *Guidance and Careers*

THE HUMAN CELL AND THE CYTO-TECHNOLOGIST: 22 mins., color (\$135), National Committee for Careers in Medical Technology, Washington, D.C. Animation sequences show how cells behave and how an abnormal cell is due to cancer. Betty, a cytotechnologist in a pathology laboratory, plays an important role in cancer detection as she screens slides of cells and works with the scientific team. Through her eyes, students interested in medical technology see an important and rewarding career.

8. *History and Biography*

CITY OF GOLD: 23 mins., black and white, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Uses authentic photographs of the period to tell the story of the Yukon gold rush and the men who climbed icy slopes and penetrated into the Klondike in search of an elusive fortune. Narrated by Pierre Berton, whose father was one of the Klondikers; Berton shows Dawson City as it is today, and as it lives in the memories of the old men.

9. *Homemaking*

THE ART OF GIFT WRAPPING: 21 mins., color, free loan, Association Films. How to create gift packages of all kinds. Simple, step-by-step illustrations show how to wrap odd-sized packages, disguise familiar gift shapes, match gift papers with gifts, make bows, personalize wrappings for showers, birthdays, and other events.

* Prices not stated here may be obtained from the distributor.

10. *Instruction in Arts, Crafts, Skills, and Study Techniques*

MAGAZINES TO TRANSPARENCIES: 12 mins., color, Florida State University. Points out that current magazines contain illustrations which may well serve the purposes of the classroom teacher. It then illustrates, step by step, the simple process by which illustrations may be transferred to transparencies for classroom projection.

11. *International Relations*

THE LADY FROM PHILADELPHIA: 56 mins., black and white, Contemporary Films. An on-the-spot record of the tour which Marian Anderson undertook with the sponsorship of the State Department and of the response of many different audiences to her as a musician and as a person.

12. *Mental Health*

BITTER WELCOME: 36 mins., black and white, Mental Health Film Board, New York. The problem of a man, recently discharged from a mental hospital, who has a job with a construction crew. When the other workers learn of his past history, they are suspicious or distant and one is actively antagonistic. However, they come to accept him and to realize the lack of basis for their fears—except for one whose antagonism the ex-patient must learn to face and overcome.

13. *Nature and Wildlife*

A WAY OF LIFE: 27 mins., color, free loan, Missouri Conservation Commission, Jefferson City, Mo. The story of predation, the law of nature.

14. *Sports, Physical Education, and Recreation*

THE MELBOURNE OLYMPIC GAMES: 23 mins., color, free loan, Coca Cola Co. Shows the sportmanship, pageantry and history of the Olympic games, and suggests that international good will can be built on the sports field.

15. *Elementary Science*

EARTHQUAKES AND VOLCANOES: 13 mins. (\$125), Film Associates of California. How earthquakes occur in faults in the crust of the earth. How earth movements may also form melted rock, which is forced through the earth's crust to become a volcano.

16. *Science-High School*

RHYTHMIC MOTIONS OF GROWING PLANTS: 11 mins., color, William Harlow, 115

Terrace Rd., Syracuse, N.Y. Circumnutation, the basic waving or nodding motion of growing plants, is featured. The effects of gravity and light upon plants, and the "sleep motions" of leaves. Sweeping motions of morning glory vine and tendrils action of wild cucumber. Time lapse photography is used.

17. *Sociology, Anthropology, and Intercultural Relations*

THE HUNTERS: 71 mins., black and white, color, Contemporary Films. Story of bushmen in South Africa and the Bechuanaland Protectorate. Centers about hunters tracking down every possible quarry to provide food for their families. Climax is thirteen-day hunt.

18a. *Architecture and Design*

COLOR AND TEXTURE AND FINISH: 18 mins., color, free loan, Association Films. An adventure in color effects and modern design to intrigue the eyes and stimulate the imagination. The "Man on a Skyhook" explores the dream-world of rainbow-hued aluminum. Unusual film techniques have been used to show a great variety of forms and colors.

18b. *Art History and Appreciation*

THE GOLDEN AGE OF FLEMISH PAINTING: 70 mins., color, Rembrandt Film Library, New York City. The Belgian critic and art historian, Paul Haesaerts, presents selected works by eight Flemish painters: Jan Van Eyck, Rogier van der Weyden, Dirk Bouts, Hugo van der Goes, Hans Memling, Quentin Massys, Pieter Breughel, and Hieronymus Bosch.

19. *Music, Dance, and Pantomime*

A DANCER'S WORLD: 30 mins., black and white, Rembrandt Film Library, New York City. Martha Graham, noted choreographer and modern dancer, discusses the dancer as a creative artist. She explains the dancer's craft as members of her company illustrate her theories in a dance choreographed by Miss Graham especially for the film. Woven into the movements of the dance are all the basic techniques required by the modern dancer.

20. *Stories, Legends, and Films For Children* (tie—duplicate awards)

TOCCATA FOR TOY TRAINS: 13 mins., black and white, Brandon Films, New York City. Moving toys and dolls in color recreate a train trip. The film uses a large collection of beautiful old toys, chiefly nineteenth century. Special musical score by Elmer Bernstein.

THE LEGEND OF THE RAVEN: 15 mins., color, free loan, Esso Standard Oil Co. An Eskimo grandfather tells an old legend about how the raven was banished from the society of men and birds because he was selfish in time of winter hunger. The story is enacted through the use of authentic Eskimo stone and ivory carvings and enriched by actual chants.

21. Religion, Ethics, and Church Work

MAKE IT WORK: 15 mins., black and white, General Conference of Seventh-Day Adventists, Tacoma Park, Washington, D.C. How to go about presenting church activities in the best way before local community groups such as those in radio, television, and the newspapers.

22. See filmstrip section next month.

23. Industrial and Technical Processes (tie—duplicate awards)

A MILE TO EL DORADO: 28 mins., color, free loan, Association Films. In Venezuela, oil is a mile down in the earth under water of the ocean. Aluminum is used in construction of drilling rigs and in pipes to carry crude oil to the refineries.

REFINING NICKEL FROM THE SUD-BURY ORES: 54 mins., color, free loan, Rothacker Films. Shows in live action and animation the technical processes of refining pure nickel from the mined ore. Industrial methods using electricity and electrolysis, and the carbonyl gas method to produce pure nickel pellets, are demonstrated.

24. Sales and Promotion—Agriculture, Construction, and Textiles

THE WONDERFUL WORLD OF WASH 'N WEAR: 22 mins., color, free loan, Whirlpool Corp., St. Joseph, Michigan. Jeffrey Lynn takes the viewer through the evolution of natural fiber fabrics into synthetics and shows washing methods and demonstrations of washer and dryer.

25. Sales and Promotion—Business and Industry

DIAL THE MILES: 14 mins., color, free loan, Southern Bell Telephone and Telegraph Co., Atlanta, Ga. Use of the dial phone in business and industry.

26. Institutional Public Relations—Commercial Organizations

FIRE AND THE WHEEL: 29 mins., color,

free loan, Modern Talking Pictures. The story of petroleum in today's way of life, from drill to hose, across the world. Demonstrates why industrial "bigness" is necessary in the petroleum field and shows the major elements determining the price to the consumer.

27. Institutional Public Relations—Nonprofit Organizations

THE PERKINS STORY: 42 mins., color, Perkins School for the Blind, Watertown, Mass. The history and program of the Perkins School, shown through incidents in the school day at the kindergarten, primary, and high-school level. How Perkins prepares its students for life in the outside world, and its contributions to work with the blind.

28. Sales and Technical Training

BLASTING VIBRATIONS: CAUSE AND EFFECT: 23 mins., color, free loan, Hercules Powder Co. Don Leet, head of Harvard's Agassiz Seismographic Station, explains what happens when a dynamite blast goes off and how the blasts are controlled. Compares blast vibrations in a home to those set up by normal everyday household activities.

29. Personnel Training

THE VOICE OF YOUR BUSINESS: 12 mins., color, free loan, American Telephone and Telegraph Co. Mr. Short and Mr. Long have similar businesses, but Mr. Long is successful and Mr. Short is in the red. Mr. Short copies everything Mr. Long's company does, without result, until he improves his staff's use of the telephone. At once he begins to prosper.

30. Health for Nonmedical Audiences

VARICOSE VEINS: 7 mins., color, free loan, American Heart Association. Animated diagrams show the structure and function of the veins, how valves work, and how valves may break down, causing varicose veins. Symptoms and treatment.

31. Safety and First Aid (tie—duplicate awards)

THE BICYCLIST: 15 mins., color, Brandon Films, New York City. A red bicycle tells the story of its many experiences and shows how to achieve safety.

RESCUE BREATHING: 21 mins., color, silent, American Film Producers, New York City. Step-by-step demonstration of the technique of rescue breathing.

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